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# STONEMAN II TEST OF RECLAMATION PERFORMANCE

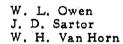
VOLUME II

PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF WET DECONTAMINATION PROCEDURES

Research and Development Technical Report USNRDL-TR-335

21 July 1960

by





# US. NAVAL RADIOLOGICAL DEFENSE LABORATORY

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W. L. Owen J. D. Sartor W. H. Van Horn

Special Distribution

Technical Objective AW - 5c

Technical Developments Branch P. D. LaRiviere, Head

Chemical Technology Division L. H. Gevantman, Acting Head

Scientific Director E. P. Cooper

Commanding Officer and Director Captain E. B. Roth, USN

U. S. NAVAL RADIOLOGICAL DEFENSE LABORATORY
San Francisco 24, California

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#### ABSTRACT

The basic decontamination procedures (firehosing, motorized flushing, and scrubbing) evaluated during the STONEMAN I field tests in 1956 provided a generally high fallout removal effectiveness of 98 percent or more. This was due to the visual rate-control which allowed the recovery operations to progress only as fast as the simulated fallout material appeared to be removed. For this reason the cost of recovery approached the maximum in terms of effort and water requirements.

Since in many situations there may not be adequate water supplies available for large-scale decontamination operations, it appeared desirable to lower the water consumption and also the manpower effort, and supply requirements to determine the influence on the decontamination effectiveness. A series of tests was, therefore, conducted to improve the performance of wet decontamination procedures. Synthetic fallout made of tagged processed soils was dispersed over pavements and roofs so as to simulate the deposition of actual fallout resulting from land surface detonations of nuclear weapons. Removal effectiveness and effort data were obtained on motorized flushing and firehosing of paved areas. Direct firehosing with fan-shaped streams and lobbing of standard firestreams were performed on roof areas.

The performance of motorized flushing was superior to that of firehosing both from the standpoint of removal effectiveness and effort expended. Portland cement concrete surfaces were consistently easier to clean than asphaltic concrete for either type of decontamination procedure. An improvised street flusher attachment was found to be satisfactory and its performance was competitive with the conventional flusher tested.

For roofing surfaces no rougher than composition shingles, lobbing of firestreams from ground level appears to offer the same degree of removal effectiveness as direct hosing at roof level - where roof slopes provide adequate drainage.

A mathematical model based upon theoretical considerations has been developed for the comparative evaluation of decontamination methods. With this model it is possible to assess wet decontamination methods and to estimate the effect of various environmental parameters.

#### SUMMARY

#### The Problem

To develop and evaluate reclamation techniques for land targets with emphasis on wet decontamination procedures such as motorized flushing and firehosing.

# Findings

Using processed soil as a synthetic representation of the dry fallout from nuclear weapons detonated on a land surface, removal effectiveness and effort data were collected during the evaluation of four basic procedures. Decontamination of large paved areas was accomplished by motorized flushing (conventional and improvised) and improved firehosing techniques. Composition shingle and built-up tar and gravel roofs were subjected to the direct action of fanshaped streams provided by standard firehoses equipped with special nozzles. Lobbing of firestreams onto composition shingle roofs from ground level was also tested.

The performance of motorized flushing was superior to that of firehosing both from the standpoint of removal effectiveness and effort expended. Portland cement concrete surfaces were consistently easier to clean than asphaltic concrete for either type of decontamination procedure. The improvised street flusher design was found to be feasible and its performance was competitive with the conventional flusher tested.

For roofing surfaces no rougher than composition shingles, lobbing of firestreams from ground level appears to offer the same degree of removal effectiveness as direct hosing at roof level where roof slopes provide adequate drainage.

A mathematical model based upon theoretical considerations has been developed for the comparative evaluation of decontamination methods. Using this model it is possible to assess wet decontamination methods and to estimate the effect of various environmental parameters.

### ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION

This investigation was sponsored by the Department of the Army as part of Program B-3, Problem 3, described in this Laboratory's Technical Program for Fiscal Year 1959, revised 1 January 1959.

The main objective was to determine cost and performance of reclamation measures for land-based construction. This report presents results for the sub-objective; to provide information on new reclamation techniques for land targets with emphasis on wet decontamination procedures. The other reports in this series are

- Vol. I The Production, Dispersal and Measurement of Synthetic Fallout Material
- Vol. III Performance Characteristics of Dry Decontamination Procedures
- Vol. IV Performance Characteristics of Land Reclamation Methods
- Vol. V Contaminability Characteristics of Personnel Exposed to Contact Beta Radiation

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The objectives of this test could not have been fulfilled without the whole-hearted assistance and cooperation of many organizations and personnel therefrom. The performance of the 50th Chemical Service Platoon, U.S. Army, assigned to support the test was outstanding in every respect. The services of the personnel from the Mobile Construction Battallion Five, Port Hueneme, California proved invaluable in the operation of heavy equipment assigned to the project. In addition the authors wish to acknowledge the invaluable aid from the following organizations: Headquarters, Sixth U.S. Army, Presidio of San Francisco, California; Post Engineer, Camp Stoneman, California; Research Directorate, Air Force Special Weapons Center, Kirtland Air Force Base, New Mexico.

# CONTENTS

SUMMARY         iv           ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION         v           ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS         vi           CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION         1           1.1 Background         1           1.2 Objective         2           1.3 Scope of Test         2           CHAPTER 2 DESCRIPTION OF TEST PROCEDURES AND MEASUREMENTS         3           2.1 Basic Principles of Wet Decontamination         3           2.1.1 General Description of the Decontamination         4           2.1.2 Energy of Fluid Streams         4           2.1.3 Stream Pattern         5           2.1.4 Operating Rate         5           2.1.5 Equipment Design         6           2.1.6 Procedural Application         7           2.2 Production of Synthetic Fallout         8           2.2.1 Selection of Radioisotope         8           2.2.2 Bulk Carrier Material         8           2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout         9           2.3.1 Pavements         9           2.3.2 Roofs         9           2.3.3 Sampling Pans         9           2.4.1 Preliminary Studies         12           2.4.2.1 Pavements         12           2.4.2.2 Roofs         19		17				
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS. vi  ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS. vi  CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION 1  1.1 Background 1  1.2 Objective 2  1.3 Scope of Test. 2  CHAPTER 2 DESCRIPTION OF TEST PROCEDURES AND MEASUREMENTS 3  2.1 Basic Principles of Wet Decontamination 3  2.1.1 General Description of the Decontamination Process 3  2.1.2 Energy of Fluid Streams 4  2.1.3 Stream Pattern 5  2.1.4 Operating Rate 5  2.1.5 Equipment Design 6  2.1.6 Procedural Application 7  2.2 Production of Synthetic Fallout 8  2.2.1 Selection of Radioisotope 8  2.2.2 Bulk Carrier Material 8  2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout 9  2.3.1 Pavements 9  2.3.2 Roofs 9  2.3.3 Sampling Pans 9  2.4.1 Preliminary Studies 12  2.4.2 Field Test Procedures 12  2.4.2.1 Pavements 12	ABSTRACT	T	•	• .	• •	<b>1</b> 1
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION						iv
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION 1 1.1 Background 1 1.2 Objective 2 1.3 Scope of Test 2  CHAPTER 2 DESCRIPTION OF TEST PROCEDURES AND MEASUREMENTS 3 2.1 Basic Principles of Wet Decontamination 3 2.1.1 General Description of the Decontamination Process 3 2.1.2 Energy of Fluid Streams 4 2.1.3 Stream Pattern 5 2.1.5 Equipment Design 6 2.1.6 Procedural Application 7 2.2 Production of Synthetic Fallout 8 2.2.1 Selection of Radioisotope 8 2.2.2 Bulk Carrier Material 8 2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout 9 2.3.1 Pavements 9 2.3.2 Roofs 9 2.3.3 Sampling Pans 9 2.4.1 Preliminary Studies 12 2.4.2 Field Test Procedures 12 2.4.2.1 Pavements 12 2.4.2.2 Roofs 19	ADMINIS'	TRATIVE INFORMATION	•		• •	v
1.1   Background   2   2   1.3   Scope of Test   2   2   2   2   2   2   2   2   2	ACKNOWL	EDGEMENTS	•	•	• `•	vi
1.2 Objective	CHAPTER	1 INTRODUCTION		:		
1.2 Objective		1.1 Background		•		. 1
CHAPTER 2 DESCRIPTION OF TEST PROCEDURES AND MEASUREMENTS. 3 2.1 Basic Principles of Wet Decontamination. 3 2.1.1 General Description of the Decontamination Process. 3 2.1.2 Energy of Fluid Streams. 4 2.1.3 Stream Pattern 5 2.1.4 Operating Rate 5 2.1.5 Equipment Design 6 2.1.6 Procedural Application 7 2.2 Production of Synthetic Fallout 8 2.2.1 Selection of Radioisotope 8 2.2.2 Bulk Carrier Material 8 2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout 9 2.3.1 Pavements 9 2.3.2 Roofs 9 2.3.3 Sampling Pans 9 2.4 Decontamination Tests 12 2.4.1 Preliminary Studies 12 2.4.2 Field Test Procedures 12 2.4.2.1 Pavements 12 2.4.2.2 Roofs 19		1.2 Objective				
2.1.1 General Description of the Decontamination Process	···.	1.3 Scope of Test	•	•	• :	2
2.1.1 General Description of the Decontamination Process	CHAPTER					. 3
Process				•	• •	3
2.1.3 Stream Pattern						
2.1.3 Stream Pattern	"	Process	•	•	• •	ş
2.1.4 Operating Rate						4
2.1.6 Procedural Application		2.1.3 Stream Pattern	•	•	• •	5
2.1.6 Procedural Application		2.1.4 Operating Rate	٠	•	• • , '	- 5
2.1.6 Procedural Application		2.1.5 Equipment Design	. •	•		6
2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout	-	2.1.6 Procedural Application	•	• '	• •	. 7
2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout		2.2 Production of Synthetic Fallout		•		8
2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout		2.2.1 Selection of Radioisotope		•	. •	8
2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout		2.2.2 Bulk Carrier Material	•	•		8
2 3.1 Pavements	**	2.3 Dispersal of Synthetic Fallout	٠	• ,,		9
2.3.2 Roofs. 9 2.3.3 Sampling Pans. 9 2.4 Decontamination Tests 12 2.4.1 Preliminary Studies 12 2.4.2 Field Test Procedures 12 2.4.2.1 Pavements 12 2.4.2.2 Roofs 19		2 3.1 Pavements				9
2.3.3 Sampling Pans		2.3.2 Roofs.,	٠			9
2.4 Decontamination Tests		2.3.3 Sampling Pans	•			9
2.4.1 Preliminary Studies		2.4 Decontamination Tests.		,	÷ •	12
2.4.2 Field Test Procedures		2.4.1 Preliminary Studies				12
2.4.2.1 Pavements		2.4.2 Field Test Procedures				12
2.4.2.2 Roofs						
2.5 Radiation and Effectiveness Measurements						
		2.5 Radiation and Effectiveness Measurements	•			

CHAPTER	3 RESULTS	5
	3.1 Decontamination Tests	έ
	3.2 Time and Motion Studies	ŕ
	3	J
CHAPTER	4 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS	1
	4.1 Parameters Affecting Decontamination Effectiveness 3	1
	4.1.1 Pavements	5
	4.1.2 Roofs	ŕ
	4.2 Comparison of Decontamination Results With	_
	Respect to Methods and Surfaces	6
	4.2.1 Pavements	š
	4.2.2 Special Tests on Pavements	7
	4.2.3 Roofs	<i>!</i>
	4.3 Effect of Initial Mass Level and Effort on Residual	,
	Mass Level	_
	4.4 Operational Characteristics of Decontamination	2
	Equipment	2
	4.4.1 Conventional Motorized Flushing	Ē
	4.4.2 Improvised Motorized Flushing	ر د
15	4.4.3 Firehosing.	!
	4.5 Sources of Error	•
**	4.9 Sources of Error	J
CHIP CAH!	5 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	_
OTHE THE	5.1 Conclusions	3
	6 O Bangamandations	3
	5.2 Recommendations	
REFERENC	DES	7
<b>APPENDIX</b>	(A	•
PPENDTY	(B	
	B.1 Observed Data	L
	DIE ODDELTER DEUE	
APPENDTX	150	

# FIGURES

	$oldsymbol{\omega}$	
2.1		
2.2	Dump Truck for Dispersing Dry Synthetic Fallout on Pavement	10
2.3	Hand-drawn Spreaders for Dispersing Dry Synthetic Fallout	
_	on Roofs	11
2.4	Firehosing on Portland Cement Concrete Pavement	13
2.5	Motorized Flushing on Asphaltic Concrete Pavement	15
2.6	Graph for Estimating Flusher Speeds for Various Mass Loadings .	17
2.7	Improvised Flusher on Asphaltic Concrete Pavement	
2.8	Improvised Nozzle Bar Attached to Conventional Street Flusher .	18
2.9	Firehose Flushing on Composition Shingle Roofing	20
2.10	Firehose Flushing on Tar and Gravel Roofing	20
2.11	Nozzle Designed for Direct Firehosing of Roofs	21
2.12	Lobbing Firehose Stream on Composition Shingle Roof	21
2.13	Mobile Shielded Gamma Scintillation Detector Unit	
	(EGGHEAD III)	23
2.14	Mobile Shielded Gamma Scintillation Detector Unit	
	(EGGHEAD JR.)	23
4.1.	l Variation in M* With Increased Initial Mass Mo -	
	Paved Area	36
	2 Variation of M* With Initial Mass Loading Plus Loose	
	Gravel (Mo)g, Tar and Gravel Roofing.	37
4.1.	3 Variation in M* With Initial Mass Mo - Composition	_
	Shingle Roofing	38
	4 Decontamination Effectiveness of Conventional or Improvised	
	Motorized Flushing Portland Cement Concrete	39
	5 Decontamination Effectiveness of Conventional Motorized	
	Flushing — Asphaltic Concrete	40
	6 Decontamination Effectiveness of Improvised Motorized	
		41
	7 Decontamination Enfectiveness of Firehosing — Asphaltic	
		42
	8 Decontamination Effectiveness of Fan Nozzle Firehosing	
		43
	9 Decontamination Effectiveness of Both Direct Hosing With	
	Fan Nozzle and Lobbing With Firehosing Nozzle Techniques on	1. 1.
	Composition Shingles	111
	l Comparative Effectiveness of Motorized Flushing and	ï. o
,	Firehosing on Pavement	48

4.2.2 Comparative Effectiveness of Decontamination Methods on	
Roofs for an M <sub>0</sub> of 25 g/ft <sup>2</sup>	2
4.2.3 Comparative Effectiveness of Decontamination Methods on	
This for an Mo of 100 g/ft <sup>2</sup>	T
iventional or Improvised Motorized Flushing of	_
Portland Cement Concrete	3
4.3.2 Residual Mass as a Function of Initial Mass Loading —	
Conventional or Improvised Motorized Flushing of	
Asphaltic Concrete	4
4.3.3 Residual Mass as a Function of Initial Mass Loading -	_
Firehosing Asphaltic or Portland Cement Concrete 5	5
4.3.4 Residual Mass as a Function of Initial Mass Loading -	
Fan Nozzle or Lobbing Techniques on Composition Shingles 5	
A.1 Performance Curves of 3/8 inch Forester Nozzles 8	
A.2 Performance Curves for 1/2 inch Forester Nozzles	2
A.3 Performance Curves for the $7/16$ inch Forester Nozzles 8	3
A.4 Performance Curves for 5/8 inch Fire Nozzles	
A.5 Performance Curves for Water Broom Nozzles	٥.
A.6 Comparative Increase in Removal Rate With Increased	
Nozzle Pressure	3
A.7 Comparison of Average Unit Consumption With Increased	
Nozzle Pressure	4
A.8 Comparative Increase in Economy Ratio With Increased	
Nozzle Pressure	5
A.9 Comparative Increase in Average Flow With Increased	
Nozzle Pressure	6
A.10 Nozzle Calibration Curves	•
Map of Camp Stoneman	2
Fest Readings on Ground Surfaces	5
Test Readings on Roof Surfaces	

#### TABLES

3.1	Decontamination Results for Conventional Motorized	
	Flushing	26
3.2	Decontamination Results for Improvised Motorized	
	Flushing	27
<b>3</b> ⋅3	Decontamination Results for Firehosing Paved Areas	28
3.4		29
3.5	Decontamination Results for Lobbing Firehose Streams	
	on Composition Shingle Roofs	29
4.1	Palative Increase in M With Forward Distance in	_
	Decontaminating Asphaltic Concrete	33
4.2	Derived Values of $3K_0$ , M* and $\alpha$	45
A.l		
A.2	Impact Test of Conventional Flusher Nozzles	73
A · 3		74
A.4	Improvised Jeep Flusher Tests	77
A.5	Tests of Handheld Fire Streams	79
A.6		88
A.7	Street Flusher Tests	92
B.1	Raw Data for Decontamination Rate and Effort on	
	Pavements	103
B.2		_
	Firehosing Pavements	103
B.3		
C, 1	Compilation of Basic and Extracted Test Data: From	
"	Pavements	161
C.2	Compilation of Basic and Extracted Data: From Roofs	

#### CHAPTER 1

#### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 BACKGROUND

The first experimental work on the decontamination of paved areas and roofing surfaces which were contaminated with a dry fallout simulant was carried out in 1948. In Operation Streetsweep! an investigation was made to determine the effectiveness of a mechanized street sweeper and a standard firehose in the removal of large and small sized metallic particles from various types of road surfaces. In Operation Supersweep2 a study was made of the effectiveness of hand sweeping and hosing in the removal of three different particle size ranges of radiotantalum metal from macadam and concrete test samples. It was found in both of these experiments that the "wet" method was the more effective in removing the particles. At Operation JANGLE3 in the winter of 1951, experiments were carried out on an asphalt road and on several buildings that were contaminated with a dry fallout from an underground nuclear detonation. A subsequent analysis of the data from these tests by Miller indicated that they were insufficient for proper evaluation of the methods. Of the "wet" methods evaluated, however, it was found that high pressure hosing was the most effective.

In 1956, the basic decontamination procedures (firehosing, motorized flushing and scrubbing) were evaluated during the STONEMAN I field test<sup>5</sup> utilizing tagged soils to simulate dry fall out. Generally high recovery effectiveness (less than 2 % remaining) was obtained at this series of tests. This was largely due to the visual rate-control employed in all recovery procedures. The work was allowed to progress only as fast as the contaminant appeared to be removed. This procedure resulted in large expenditures of effort associated with slow rates of operation and therefore the cost of recovery was very high in terms of effort and water

requirements. For instance, an average firehosing operation required 800 gallons per 1,000 ft<sup>2</sup> and motorized flushing 500 gallons per 1,000 ft<sup>2</sup>. With these water requirements, in a real situation there may not be adequate water supplies available for large scale decontamination operations. Therefore it was desirable to conduct tests with lower water consumption and also with lower effort in manpower and supply requirements to determine whether this would result in a proportionate reduction in decontamination effectiveness.

#### 1.2 OBJECTIVE

The objective of the work described in this volume was "to determine the relationship between recovery effectiveness and those factors affecting operational efficiency in order to define optimum performance characteristics of the basic decontamination procedures."

## 1.3 SCOPE OF TEST

The tests\* conducted on paved areas were limited to the evaluation of the following procedures: (1) firehosing; (2) conventional motorized flushing, and (3) improvised motorized flushing. Each procedure was evaluated for effectiveness in decontaminating asphaltic concrete and portland cement concrete surfaces.

The tests conducted on roofing areas were limited to the evaluation of the following procedures: (1) firehosing and (2) lobbing. Each procedure was evaluated for effectiveness in decontaminating composition shingle roofs while only direct hosing was evaluated using tar and gravel roofs.

Three contaminating conditions were selected for a dry synthetic fallout material simulating the fallout resulting from a high-yield (MT) land surface burst. These, in terms of nominal mass deposit levels, were: 10 grams/ft<sup>2</sup>, 33 grams/ft<sup>2</sup> and 100 grams/ft<sup>2</sup>. These mass levels correspond to dose rates of approximately 300 r/hr, 1,000 r/hr and 3,000 r/hr, all at one hour after burst.  $^4$ 

<sup>\*</sup>A description of the test site at Camp Stoneman and the test surfaces can be found in Volume I6 of this series.

#### CHAPTER 2

#### DESCRIPTION OF TEST PROCEDURES AND MEASUREMENTS

# 2.1 BASIC PRINCIPLES OF WET DECONTAMINATION

# 2.1.1 General Description of the Decontamination Process

Decontamination of paved and roofing areas covered with fallout from land surface bursts consists of two processes: (a) loosening and/or removal of the debris from the surface, (b) disposal of the debris.

For solid particulate fallout typical of land surface bursts, gravity is one of the chief forces holding the larger particles to the surface; for small particles other surface attraction forces may also be important. For this type of fallout most of the effort in decontamination is expended in moving the particles along a surface and/or physically lifting them off the surface. Wet decontamination procedures utilize the force of the water stream impinging upon the surface of the area to dislodge and accelerate the particles from a rest position; the resulting water flow over the surface then transports the particles to another position of rest downstream or to a nearby disposal area (sewers, sumps, ditches etc.).

Certain factors are believed to influence the effectiveness of wet decontamination methods and these cun fall into two categories: environmental and operational. Environmental factors include items such as contaminant properties, surface characteristics, drainage conditions, weather conditions - factors that are not controlled by recovery teams. Operational factors, however, are more readily controlled and, within reasonable limits, may be adjusted toward gaining improved performance in the basic decontamination procedures.

whose operational factors believed to influence removal effectiveness the most are: (a) the energy of high velocity streams,

(b) the stream pattern, (c) the operating rate, (d) the design of the equipment, and (e) the procedural application. Although these factors are interrelated, they can be discussed individually.

# 2.1.2 Energy of Fluid Streams

From STONEMAN I tests<sup>5</sup> the loosening and transport of contaminant (in the form of soil particles) by the action of high velocity firehose streams was found to be confined almost solely to the impact region. For the heavy initial deposits and water flow rates used, the run-off water was not sufficient to transport the dense dirt particles much beyond the stream impact region. The movement of the particles from the area struck by the stream apparently was dependent primarily upon the kinetic energy of the water stream at the surface. The energy, W, of the stream per unit area of surface is given by

$$W = P T/A \tag{2.1}$$

where P is the stream power in ft-lb/min, A is the area covered by the stream in sq ft, and  $\mathcal T$  is the time in min that the stream stays on the area, A.

The kinetic power, P, of a nozzled water jet in terms of its hydraulic parameters is

$$P = k_1 pQ (2.2)$$

where  $k_1$  is a constant almost equal to unity, p is the nozzle pressure, and Q is the water flow rate through the nozzle. The flow rate, Q is equal to the product of the nozzle tip area times the jet velocity; also, Q varies as pl/2. If these relationships are substituted in Eq. 2.2 and then into Eq. 2.1, it becomes

$$W = k_2 ap^{3/2} (T/A)$$
 (2.3)

or

$$W = k_1 apV(T/A)$$
 (2.4)

where  $k_2$  is a constant, a is the nozzle tip area, and V is the jet velocity. Eq. 2.3 shows that for a given nozzle tip area the energy increases as p3/2 and hence it would be advantageous to use the highest possible nozzle pressure. On the other hand, it is desirable to keep the flow rate down to conserve water. This can be done by decreasing the nozzle tip area. Since the tip area can be made as

small as desired, the available pressure becomes the limiting factor in achieving a given stream kinetic energy on the surface.

# 2.1.3 Stream Pattern

Two approaches have existed for some time with regard to stream pattern. The first is based on the tightly confined cylindrical water jets as typified by firehose streams; these are often called "hard" streams. Such streams deliver maximum impact per unit surface area, especially at close range (6 to 8 feet), before the jet has had a chance to spread. Effective cleaning by streams of this type diminishes at the fringe of the impact region.

The second approach to stream pattern has been that represented by flat-wide jets. These streams strike the surface in a broad but thin front and make contact with the particles essentially along the line of the stream front. Such an action seems to make best use of the available water in transmitting its energy to the maximum number of particles. On the other hand, this pattern is not believed to provide adequate water flow to transport large quantities of particles.

It appears that a combination of the best features of each pattern would give a stream providing maximum removal potential.

# 2.1.4 Operating Rate

The operating rate, R, is the same as A/T of Eq. 2.1. Substituting it in Eq. 2.3 gives

$$W = \frac{k_2 a_p^{3/2}}{R} = k_3 p^{3/2}/R \qquad (2.5)$$

where  $k_3=k_1a$ , since a is constant for a given nozzle. Thus the total stream energy applied to the area covered by the stream is inversely proportional to the rate. If the energy required to displace a unit mass of particles from the area A is w', and the amount displaced is  $M_0$ -M ( $M_0$  is the initial mass deposited in gms/sq ft and M is the mass of particles per unit area not displaced), then the energy required for the displacement is

$$W' = W'(M_0 - M) \tag{2.6}$$

For W' and W to be equal, the correct value of R must be selected. If R is too low, water is wasted. If R is too large, M will increase.

If the ratio W'/W (required energy to applied energy) is defined as an efficiency,  $\xi$ , then the rate required is given by

$$R^* = \frac{\epsilon k_3 p^{3/2}}{w^*(M_0 - M)}$$
 (2.7)

Equation 2.7 indicates that, for a constant  $\epsilon$  and w', the required rate varies directly with  $p^{3/2}$  and inversely with  $m_0$ -M. This disagrees with the data in Appendix A where, for a given value of  $m_0$ -M (approximately), R varied as  $p^{1/2}$  for firehosing nozzles. However, for motorized flushing the rates appeared to approach the pressure dependence given by Eq. 2.7. For R to vary as  $p^{1/2}$ ,  $\epsilon$  must have been inversely proportional to p. In actual practice, this means that the rate used was slower than could have been used and that it fell off the ideal rate further as the pressure was increased.

The efficiency defined by Eq. 2.7 is only an approximation of a true definition. The process by which the stream energy is utilized to accelerate particles is a complex one involving hydrodynamic parameters and energy exchanges that are more involved than the simple terms of Eq. 2.7. Another definition is discussed in Chapter  $^{1}$ 4 where the effects of an increase of M and M<sub>O</sub> and decrease in R (for firehosing) with distance is discussed.

# 2.1.5 Equipment Design

Alterations or new developments in the design of decontamination equipment offer unlimited opportunity for improving the performance of recovery operations. In addition to a change in nozzle tip area, consideration must be given to nozzle attack angle (the acute angle of the nozzle relative to the surface being decontaminated), particularly with regard to motorized flushers having fixed nozzles.

Because the purpose of using hard streams is to impart their kinetic energy to contaminant particles in such a way that these particles are trajected well ahead of the approaching impact region, angle becomes most important. In transmitting a maximum trajectory a rather flat angle is required. Except for the presence of surface roughness, this optimum angle theoretically would be zero. Thus some positive angle must be employed to provide a vertical impact component for accelerating particles that are lodged in surface depressions.

A parallel consideration is that of nozzle range, the distance between nozzle tip and the contaminated surface. An increase in the

useful work done by water jets could possibly result from shortening the range. This would have the effect of using the harder portion of the stream where velocity and hence the available kinetic energy are the greatest. The optimum range is believed to vary with nozzle characteristics, since it would be influenced by stream pattern.

# 2.1.6 Procedural Application

This factor is concerned with the movement of men and equipment which affect the performance of a recovery procedure. For instance, the progression of a decontamination operation in the direction of natural drainage is one example of good procedural application. Hosing of roofs in the direction of the eaves is another. These and other applications result in improved effectiveness and/or savings in effort required.

Of special interest is the relation between effort and effectiveness, particularly from the standpoint of increased rate since such an increase reduces effort. The rate used thus far has been the operating rate for an individual pass which only involves a few minutes time. However, the rate most sensitive to procedural application is the over-all or planning rate of an entire decontamination operation involving several hours. It is always less than the operating rate due to time lost in shut downs, direction changes and the general movement of men and equipment. By minimizing these losses the planning rate may be speeded up to more nearly match the operating rate.

With motorized flushers, the planning rate could be greatly increased, if flushers were permitted to flush upgrade as well as down. This would reduce non-productive road time which is part of the over-all operation time.

Improvement in personnel safety is another form of good procedural application. Because of the ever-present hazard to decontamination team members of falling while working on roofs, a recovery technique of lobbing fire streams from ground level up onto roof areas appears worthy of investigation. Admittedly, such an approach is not expected to afford the same degree of effectiveness as direct application of hard streams. However, lobbing should be of significant value on steep roofs (particularly metal ones) since the conditions creating the danger of slipping and falling also enhance the removal of particles by water flow. Thus the success of lobbing should be the greatest where the need for a remote technique is also most desirable.

### 2.2 PRODUCTION OF SYNTHETIC FALLOUT

The design and preparation of the synthetic fallout used in the tests is described in detail in Volume  ${\bf I}^0$  of this series of reports. A brief resume follows:

The dry fallout simulant was prepared by combining a radioactive tracer in solution and a bulk carrier material in the mixing drum of a modified Jaeger 3-1/2 cubic-yard transit-mix truck (Fig. 2.1). The solution was fed to an air nozzle located in the head of the rotating drum where it was atomized onto the bulk carrier materials.

The mix for each day was obtained by blending three size fractions of the bulk carrier material. The procedures for the mixing and the activity-mass distribution curves for each day's batch are presented in Volume I. 6 The mix number used for each test is indicated in Appendix C.

## 2.2.1 Selection of Radioisotope

The radionuclide Lal40 was used as the radioactive tracer in the synthetic fallout. Experiments performed prior to the land target tests conducted in 1956, demonstrated that trivalent Lal40 was strongly adsorbed to the carrier material and would not desorb under wet decontamination procedures. The half-life, 40.2 hours, was such that natural decay reduced the radioactivity at the test site to negligible amounts within a short time after the completion of the tests.

The facilities at the Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory, Los Alamos, New Mexico were used to supply the necessary quantities of Lal<sup>40</sup>.

# 2.2.2 Bulk Carrier Material

Soil (Ambrose Clay Loam) obtained from the test site at Camp Stoneman, was used as the bulk carrier material in the synthetic fall-out. To obtain acceptable physical properties, the soil was processed through a crushing, burning and sieving operation by a commercial materials processing plant.

#### 2.3 DISPERSAL OF SYNTHETIC FALLOUT

The amount of synthetic fallout material dispersed depended upon the radiation levels simulated. As stated in Section 1.4, it was desired to simulate radiation dose rates of 300 r/hr, 1,000 r/hr, and 3,000 r/hr, at 1 hour after burst, by depositing nominal mass levels of approximately 10 gms/ft², 33 gms/ft² and 100 gms/ft², respectively. Because of the equipment used precision spreading of the contaminant was not possible; therefore these nominal mass loadings were not always achieved. Tables 3.1-3.5 show the average initial mass levels actually obtained for each test.

The layer of material (based on soil density of  $1940 \, \mathrm{lbs/yd^3}$ ) simulating 300 r/hr at 1 hour would be approximately 0.004 inches deep; for  $1,000 \, \mathrm{r/hr}$  at 1 hour, 0.012 inches deep; and for  $3,000 \, \mathrm{r/hr}$  at 1 hour, 0.04 inches deep.

# 2.3.1 Pavements

The dry synthetic fallout was dispersed over the paved areas from a modified Burch Hydron Spreader mounted on the rear of a 2-1/2 yd<sup>3</sup> dump truck (Fig. 2.2). An aluminum hopper was installed on the truck to contain the synthetic fallout material and feed it directly into the spreader when the truck bed was raised. The dimensions of the test areas are shown in Appendix B.

# 2.3.2 Roofs

The dry synthetic fallout material was dispersed over the roofing areas from hand-drawn spreaders (Fig. 2.3). The various test areas are indicated in Appendix B.

## 2.3.3 Sampling Pans

To determine the actual quantity of material dispersed, sampling pans (Figs. 2.2, 2.3) were placed on the test area prior to the dispersing of the synthetic fallout material. These pans were collected immediately after the disperser had passed over them, placed in plastic bags, and weighed.

The total activity of the sample in the pan was determined in a large sample counter (ISC). The ISC consisted of a chamber 26-in. wide by 28-in. deep by 52-in. high, covered with 2-in. lead sheet and lined with 3/4-in. plywood, into which the pan was placed. A 2-1/2-in. sodium iodide-thallium activated crystal detector, attached to an appropriate scaler was used to count the sample. Next, a portion of the material in each pan was removed for the determination of specific activity in the 4-pi ion chamber.

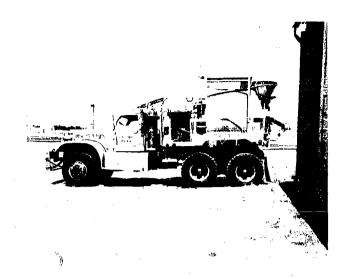


Fig. 2.1 Transit-Mix Truck for Mixing Dry Synthetic Fallout Material

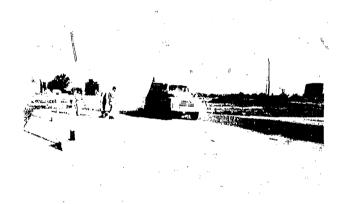


Fig. 2:2 Dump Truck for Dispersing Dry Synthetic Fallout on Pavement.

Sampling pans collect samples for determining actual quantity dispersed.

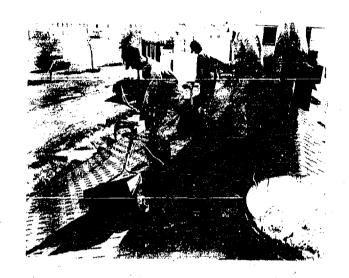


Fig. 2.3 Hand-drawn Spreaders for Dispersing Dry Synthetic Fallout on Roofs

# 2.4 DECONTAMINATION TESTS

# 2.4.1 Preliminary Studies

Prior to the field test itself, a series of engineering-scale studies were conducted to study some of the engineering parameters believed to affect decontamination effectiveness. These studies included:

- a. Water stream impact as a function of nozzle pressure and range.
- b. Designing an improvised nozzle system for a street flusher.
- c. Determining the most efficient stream pattern produced by various hand-held nozzles for the removal of soil particles.
- d. Designing a suitable nozzle for direct firehosing of roofs.
- e. Determining operating parameters for the motorized flusher, i.e., pump pressures, nozzle attack angles, nozzle orifice size, and rate of operation.

The preliminary studies were conducted on an asphalt street and concrete pavement located in the San Francisco Naval Shipyard.

Dry soil of the type used in the synthetic fallout was dispersed on the areas in concentrations of 100 g/ft2. A few tests were made with the street flusher at smaller concentrations, 10 and 30 g/ft2, respectively. No radioactive tracer was used and the removal effectiveness was qualitatively evaluated by visual observations. Results and details of the preliminary studies are given in Appendix A.

#### 2.4.2 Field Test Procedures

#### 2.4.2.1 Pavements

### Firehosing

The firehosing procedure (Fig. 2.4) on paved areas was evaluated on asphaltic concrete and portland cement concrete test areas. The procedure was carried out with two standard 1-1/2-in. firehoses fed by a 2-1/2-in. firehose running from a nearby fire hydrant to the test area. A 500-gpm pump was inserted in the hose line near the hydrant to maintain a constant nozzle discharge pressure of 75 to 80 lbs/in² for all of the tests. A standard 1-1/2-in. fire nozzle with a 5/8-in. orifice was attached to each 1-1/2-in. firehose.

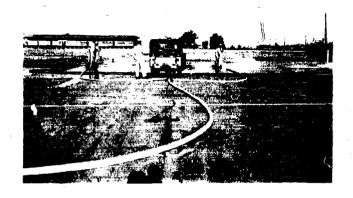




Fig. 2.4 Firehosing on Portland Cement Concrete Pavement A. Arrangement of equipment and personnel.

B. Stream striking surface.

A firehosing team utilized five personnel: two nozzle men, two hose men and the fifth man driving a jeep which towed the 2-1/2-in. firehose as the procedure progressed down the area.

The procedure started at the higher end of the slope and proceeded down the length of the test area. The nozzle men advanced side by side pushing the contaminant ahead and to each side, directing the stream to impinge upon the area 15 to 20 feet down the area.

From the preliminary studies (see  $\gamma$ -endix A) it was found that by directing the stream to impinge 15 to 20 feet down the area, the removal rate increased 33 to 43 percent over that when operating at a range of from 6 to 8 feet. This increase in operating rate also resulted in a considerable decrease in unit water consumption (gal/ft<sup>2</sup>).

These studies also indicated that the best stream pattern for efficient removal when the stream impinges at the longer range was provided by the 5/8-in. orifice, which was available on the standard 1-1/2-in. firehose nozzle. A nozzle calibration curve for this nozzle is included in Appendix A.

# Conventional Motorized Flushing

The conventional motorized flushing (CMF) procedure (Fig. 2.5) was carried out with a conventional street flusher of 3000-gal capacity, equipped with a 500-gpm pump and two forward and two side discharge nozzles. The truck was driven down the slope of the long dimension of the test area, the first pass being made along the high side of the cross slope. Successive adjacent passes covered the full width of the area.

Upon the basis of the preliminary studies described in Appendix A, the maximum available nozzle pressure of 55 psi was employed with nozzle orifices set at 1/16 inch.

In order to push the particles to one side and out of the way of the truck's wheels and to conserve water and attain a high pressure, only three of the four available nozzles were used at one time. The two front nozzles were adjusted so that their jets intersected the pavement in a continuous straight line. This line was canted at an angle of about 60° to the line of travel, in accordance with the findings of the preliminary tests. The left side nozzle (behind the driver) was aimed so as to pick up where the left front nozzle left off in the removal process (see Fig. 2.5). A calibration curve for the flusher nozzles is included in Appendix A.

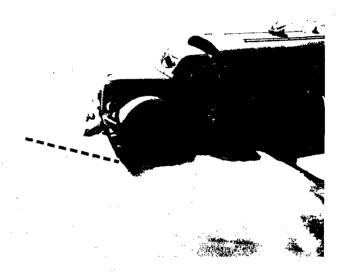


Fig. 2.5 Motorized Flushing on Asphaltic Concrete Pavement. Note that the two forward nozzles are adjusted so that their streams strike the pavement in a straight line.

To determine the effect of effort on the removal effectiveness, the motorized flusher was operated at three different rates. These rates of operation depended upon the nominal mass levels and were chosen from the curves presented in Fig. 2.6, prepared during the preliminary studies.

An accurate speed indicator mounted on the dashboard, leading from a fifth wheel attached to the flusher, allowed the driver to maintain a constant speed of operation.

# Improvised Motorized Flushing

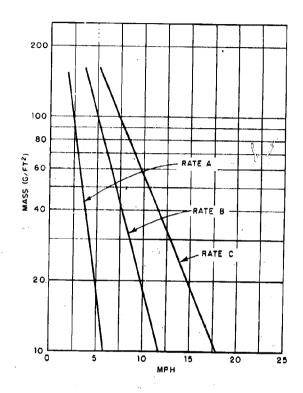
For the improvised motorized flushing (IMF) procedure (Fig. 2.7), the street flusher used for the motorized flushing procedure was provided with an improvised nozzle bar replacing the two forward flushing nozzles. The operating procedure was similar to that of the motorized flushing procedure; i.e., the truck was driven down the slope of the long dimension of the test area, the first pass being made along the high side of the cross slope. Successive adjacent passes were made over the full width of the test area.

The improvised nozzle bar consisted of an 8-1/2-ft length of 2-in. standard pipe having fourteen nozzles equally spaced on 6-in. centers. The nozzles were selected during the preliminary studies (Appendix A), those which gave the best stream pattern and impact characteristics, and were flat jet nozzles.\* A nozzle pressure of 85 psi was maintained in all tests. Consumption curves for the nozzle bar are given in Appendix A.

The nozzle bar was attached to the front bumper of the street flusher (Fig. 2.8) so as to maintain an attack angle (between the stream and the pavement) of  $30^{\circ}$  and an azimuth angle (between the stream and the direction of travel) of  $60^{\circ}$ . Short lengths of 2-1/2-in. fire hose were used to connect the nozzle bar to the piping system on the truck.

Three different rates were evaluated as in the case of the conventional motorized flushing procedure. The curves in Fig. 2.6 were used to determine the operating speed during the full-scale tests.

\*Number U-40150, Spraying Systems Co., Belwood, Illinois.



F.g. 2.6 Graph for Estimating Flusher Speeds for Various Mass Loadings

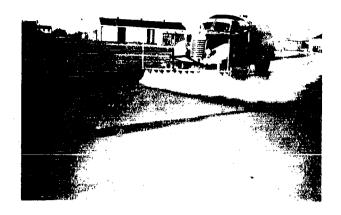


Fig. 2.7 Improvised Flusher on Asphaltic Concrete Pavement

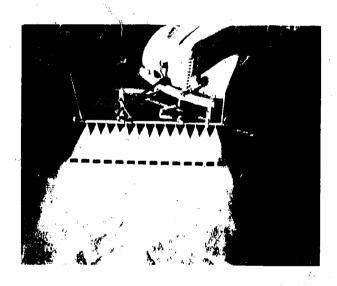


Fig. 2.8 Improvised Nozzle Bar Attached to Conventional Street Flusher

#### 2.4.2.2 Roofs

# Firehosing

The direct firehosing procedure on roofing areas (Figs. 2.9, 2.10) was evaluated on two types of roofing materials: composition shingle roofing, and tar and gravel roofing. The procedure was carried out with two 1-1/2-in. firehoses which were fed by a 2-1/2-in. firehose running from a nearby fire hydrant to the test area. A 500-gpm pump was inserted in the hose line near the hydrant to maintain constant nozzle discharge pressures of 120 and 150 psi, respectively for composition shingles or tar and gravel. A firehosing team utilized six personnel: two nozzle men, two hose men and two men to help handle the hoses on the ground.

During the preliminary studies, the development of a suitable nozzle for roofs led to one which produced a flat fan-shaped pattern (Fig. 2.11). The nozzle was designed with a 3/8 X 9/16-in. eliptical orifice. Performance curves for this nozzle are in Appendix A.

On the composition shingle roofs, the hosing was started at the peak near the end of the roof and proceeded across and down to the eaves. The nozzle operators experienced no great difficulty in working on the sloping roof.

On the relatively flat tar and gravel roofs the firehosing team worked generally from the center line out to the edge. However, on each pass they first removed the gravel nearest the eaves before cleaning the remainder from the center line. This obviated the windrowing of loosened gravel and the blocking of runoff water. Each team was responsible for only one half of the roof to avert the possibility of interference between hoses or water streams.

To determine the influence of effort on the effectiveness of decontaminating the roofs, two rates of operation were utilizd. In the first, the rate of advance was determined by the speed with which the contaminated gravel was removed. In the second, an additional pass was made over the entire area in an attempt to remove any contaminant missed during the first pass. The rate was controlled visually, the work progressing as the area appeared to become clean.

#### Lobbing

The lobbing procedure (Fig. 2.12) was carried out with a 1-1/2-in. firehose fed by a 2-1/2-in. firehose running from a nearby fire hydrant. A standard 1-1/2-in. fire nozzle with a 5/8-in.



Fig. 2.9 Firehose Flushing on Composition Shingle Roofing

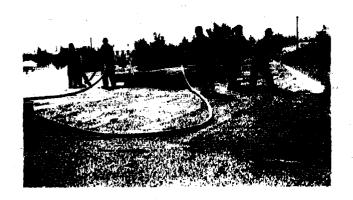


Fig. 2.10 Firehose Flushing on Tar and Gravel Roofing



Fig. 2.11 Nozzle Designed for Direct Firehosing of Roofs. Notice fan-shaped pattern.

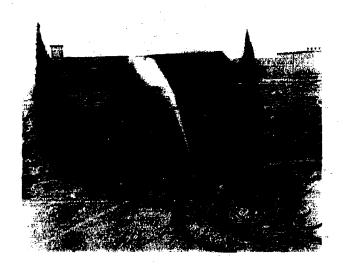


Fig. 2.12 Lobbing Firehose Stream on Composition Shingle Roof

orifice was used discharging at 40 psig. A lobbing team required 1 nozzle man and 3 hose men.

The procedure consisted of directing the fire stream onto the roof such that the stream acted as a heavy rain thus washing the contaminant down slope and off the roof. Since this procedure would be most applicable to steep roofs where the slope enhances the removal of particulate contaminant by water flow, it was evaluated on one of the taller buildings, with a composition shingled roof and having a roof peak approximately 23 feet high.

The rate of progress was determined visually, the work progressing as the run off water appeared clear.

## 2.5 RADIATION AND EFFECTIVENESS MEASUREMENTS

To determine the effectiveness of the various procedures evaluated, measurements were taken of the radiation levels present on the test areas just prior to contamination (background), after contamination, and after decontamination. The measurements were obtained with two mobile, shielded gamma scintillation detector units, one for paved areas "Egghead III" (Fig. 2.13) and one for building roofs "Egghead, Jr." (Fig. 2.14). The principal elements of these instruments consisted of a one-inch NaI (T1) Scintillation Crystal on a photomultiplier tube. These were contained within a thick lead shield which was mounted so as to place the center of the detector one meter above the ground plane. A collimated aperture subtending a solid angle of view permitted entrance of radiation into the sensitive volume. The important characteristics of the two instruments are compared below. The conversion of the radiation measurements to mass units is summarized in Appendix C.

Instruments Used	Egghead, III	Egghead, Jr.
Surface type	Pavements	Roofs
Crystal size Detector ht. Shield thicks.	1 inch 1 meter 6 inches	l inch l meter 4 inches
Aperature diam. Solid angle of view	1 inch 50 degrees	2 inches 23 degrees

Appendix B presents the measurements obtained at each location on the test areas. The data presented have been corrected for radioactive decay and any significant background readings.

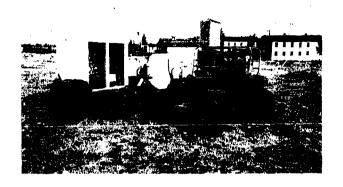


Fig. 2.13 Mobile Shielded Gamma Scintillation Detector Unit (EGGHEAD III)



Fig. 2.14 Mobile Shielded Gamma Scintillation Detector Unit (EGGHEAD JR.)
Power supply and read-out system not shown.

Each decontamination operation was timed to obtain necessary information on rate and effort. Motion pictures were also obtained of the various operations; this allowed subsequent reviewing and evaluation of the operations.

#### CHAPTER 3

## RESULTS

## 3.1 DECONTAMINATION TESTS

The results of reduction of the decontamination effectiveness data for paved and roofing surfaces are summarized in Tables 3.1 through 3.5. Among each of the four types of surfaces tested, asphaltic concrete (A-C) and Portland cement concrete (P-C) pavement, and composition shingle (C-S) and tar and gravel (T-G) roofing, no great individual variation in surface characteristics was noted, and it was assumed that all surfaces of a given type were identical. The average initial mass level,  $M_{\rm O}$ , and average final mass level, M, in grams per square foot are computed as shown in Appendix C from the observed data of Appendix B. The average percent remaining,  $\overline{F}_{\rm m}$ , is obtained from the relation

$$\overline{F}_{m} = \frac{M}{M_{O}} \times 100 \tag{3.1}$$

It should be noted that  $\vec{F}_m$  can also be obtained by substituting the average final and initial radiation readings,  $I_R$  and  $R_R$ , for  $M_O$  and M respectively. Effort, E, is a measure of available power expended per unit area, normally expressed as man-min/ft<sup>2</sup> or equipment-min/ft<sup>2</sup>. For the sake of convenience E is given in terms of man-min/lo<sup>4</sup> for pavement and man-min/lo<sup>3</sup> ft<sup>2</sup> for the roofs. The observed data for computing E, given in Appendix B, consists of the size of the test area, the total time of decontamination and number of men utilized. The time does not include equipment set-up time nor turn-around time for the street flusher.

TABLE 3.1

Decontamination Results for Conventional Motorized Flushing

Test No.8	Mo (g/ft <sup>2</sup> )	(g/ft <sup>2</sup> )	F <sub>m</sub>	$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Effort} \\ \frac{\text{Man-Min}}{10^3 \text{ ft}^2} \end{array}\right)$
		Asphalti	c Concrete	<u>.</u>
A-1 A-2 A-3 A-4 A-5 A-5 A-6 A-7 A-8 A-8	21.2 34.0 83.9 23.0 34.7 28.2 80.2 23.1 56.9 38.8 110.8	0.86 1.45 0.79 1.39 1.41 0.99 1.75 1.83 2.34 1.07	4.1 4.3 9.0 4.1 5.2 7.4 2.8 2.9 4.8 2.9 4.8 5.2	2.47 2.66 5.42 1.33 1.83 1.87 3.00 0.92 1.25 1.21
	Po	rtland Ce	ment Concr	rete
A-10 A-11 A-12 A-13 <sup>c</sup> A-14 <sup>c</sup> A-405 <sup>b</sup> A-40F <sup>b</sup>	16.3 37.5 127.9 16.7 102.6 141.2	0.70 0.49 2.02 0.61 0.88 23.06 1.68	1.3	1.12 2.36 2.60 1.60 3.92 5.2 1.76

a. See Appendix B for description of tests.

b. S = Motorized Sweeping

F = Motorized Flushing

c. Extended uphill-downhill run on a street.

TABLE 3.2

Decontamination Results for Improvised Motorized Flushing

Test No.	(g/ft <sup>2</sup> )	M (g/ft <sup>2</sup> )	<u>F</u> m (%)	$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\text{Man-Min}}{10^{14} \text{ ft}^2} \end{pmatrix}$
		Asphaltic	Concrete	<u> </u>
A-15 A-16 A-17 A-18 A-19 A-20 A-20	20.6 56.1 137.6 22.4 25.0 129.2 87.2	1.23 1.50 2.24 1.19 0.62 2.36 1.59	6.0 2.7 1.6 5.3 2.5 1.8	2.36 2.62 3.56 1.28 2.03 2.51 2.13
a	Po	rtland Cer	ment Concr	rete
A-21 A-22 A-23	22.0 25.3 84.8	0.83 0.49 1.01	3.8 1.9 1.2	1.60 2.44 3.84

TABLE 3.3

Decontamination Results for Firehosing Paved Areas

Test No.	Mo g/ft <sup>2</sup> ;	M g/ft <sup>2</sup>	)	Effort (Man-Min )
	Asphalt:	Le Cone	rete	
A-24 A-25 A-25' A-26' A-26' A-27 A-28 A-29	20.4 34.0 31.7 138.8 94.5 20.0 54.0	1.59 1.27 3.69	2.2 1.1 1.3	34.1 46.6 83.3 47.1 18.3 25.7
<u>P</u>	ortland Co	ment Co	oncrete	
A-30 A-31 A-32	18.9 43.6 102.1	0.74	2.5 1.7 1.1	31·3 36·0 57·3

TABLE 3.4
Decontamination Results for Direct Firehosing on Roofs

Test No.	M <sub>o</sub> (g/ft <sup>2</sup> )	丽 序 <sub>m</sub> (g/ft <sup>2</sup> ) (%)	$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\text{Effort}}{\text{Man-Min}} \\ 10^3 \text{ ft}^2 \end{pmatrix}$
	Tar s	nd Gravel	
AR-1 AR-2 AR-3 AR-4 AR-5 AR-6	28.0 25.6 91.5 21.1 22.9 65.2	1.30 4.6 1.55 6.1 2.22 2.4 3.05 14.4 2.14 9.3 6.87 10.5	37.5 50.0 38.4 27.9
	Сопров	ition Shingle	
AR-7 AR-8 AR-9 AR-10 AR-11 AR-12	20.6 43.7 102.0 10.8 40.0 71.8	1.36 6.6 2.58 5.9 4.18 4.1 1.13 10.5 3.02 7.6 4.43 6.2	9.4 21.2 4.7 6.6

TABLE 3.5

Decontamination Results for Lobbing Firehose Streams on Composition Shingle Roofs

Test No.	( g/ft <sup>2</sup> )	(g/ft <sup>2</sup> )	<u>Fn</u> (%)	Effort (Men-min 103 ft <sup>2</sup> )
AR-13 AR-14 AR-15	8.8 26.2 73.9		0.4 4.0 4.1	12.1 11.3 15.8

# 3.2 TIME AND MOTION STUDIES

Extensive film footage was taken of most of the tests. Efforts to obtain quantitative time information from viewing these films were generally unsuccessful, because sufficient detail was not visible. However, much qualitative information was obtained from these films which proved useful in evaluating the operational characteristics of the procedures evaluated.

ii.

### CHAPTER 4

#### DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

## 4.1 PARAMETERS AFFECTING DECONTAMINATION EFFECTIVENESS

The effectiveness of a decontamination is expressed as the residual mass level remaining for a given initial mass level, or ratio of the two (called fraction remaining) after a specified expenditure of effort has been applied in decontaminating a surface. The relationship between the effectiveness and effort is the decontamination efficiency of a method-surface combination.

In the tests, the conditions of both the initial mass and effort were varied by as much as a factor of 7 or 8 for certain methods. However, the way in which these conditions were varied was not ideal from the standpoint of deducing generalized relationships between effectiveness and effort for the different methods and surfaces. For example, in Table 3.1 for motorized flushing of asphaltic concrete, the value of the effort varies along with the initial mass (one exception) and no single set of values exists where either Mo or effort is held constant and the other is varied over a large range. This occurred, of course, because one of the main purposes of the test involved conservation of water and the mechanics of the methods as discussed in Appendix A.

The dependence of the residual mass level upon initial for various decontamination techniques has been known for sometime; equation 4.1 below, was developed by Miller9 to account for the observed variation in residual mass level with the initial level.

$$M* = M_0^*(1 - e^{-ct} M_0)$$
 (4.1)

where M\* - residual mass level at an infinite effort level, g/ft2

Mo - initial mass level, g/ft2

Mg - the limiting upper value for M\*, a constant for a given surface-method combination, g/ft2

a - spreading coefficient dependent upon the surface-method combination, the particle size and density of the fallout material, ft<sup>2</sup>/g

As noted, Eq. 4.1 assumes the expenditure of a very large effort and a constant value of Mo for the surface. The latter assumption, for wet decontamination methods, restricts rigorous application of Eq. 4.1 to small areas because when these methods are applied to large contaminated areas, the particles are scattered forward and/or to the side and consequently are piled on top of the original deposit. Since Mo, and perhaps  $\alpha$ , will increase in the forward and side directions, Eq. 4.1 would indicate an increase in M\* in those directions. If the infinite-effort residual level increases in this manner, the less-than-infinite effort residual levels should exhibit even larger increases with distance of travel.

The relative increase in M with forward distance is shown in Table 4.1 for decontamination of asphaltic concrete. The table was made up by averaging the measured residual levels across the test strips at the indicated distance along with those at the adjacent + 12-ft distances. The ratios show no persistent trend with initial mass. The increase in M with distance, however, occurs for all methods. From 37.5 ft to 112.5 ft, the average relative increase is 31 % for the CMF, 45 % for the IMF, and 67 % for firehosing. From 37.5 ft to 75 ft, the relative increases are 18 %, 34 %, and 42 %, respectively for the 3 methods. Thus the rate of increase in M with distance decreased with distance. The average values of the residual mass given in Chapter 3 do not account for these increases of M with distance so that, with respect to the decontamination of a given square foot of area, they apply to some initial mass level greater than Mo (not necessarily coincident with the value at the center of the area).

The effort as defined in Chapter 3 given by

$$E = N/R \tag{4.2}$$

where R is the rate of area coverage and N is the number of personnel used. The gross efficiency given by Eq. 2.7, in terms of E\*, the required effort to displace the mass  $(M_0-M)$  is then

$$\varepsilon = \frac{NW'(M_0 - M)}{k_0 p^{3/2} E^*}$$
 (4.3)

For a constant nozzle pressure, Eq. 4.3 can be changed to define an efficiency in terms of mass removed per unit of actual applied effort E which can be written as

$$K = (M_0 - M)/E \tag{4.4}$$

TABLE 4.1 Relative Increase in M With Forward Distance in Decontaminating Asphaltic Concrete

Test 1	<sup>1</sup> o	B(9)/A(9)*	C(9)/B(9)*	C(9)/A(9)*
		1. CM		
	L.2	1.075	1.295	1.391
	3.0	1.233	0.874	1.077
	3.2	1.442	0.954	1.375
	+∙0 +∙7	1.102 1.129	0.898 0.933	0.990 1.053
A-81 3	3.8	1.043	1.136	1.185
A-8 50	5.9	1.119	1.423	1.592
	0.2	1.265	0.936	1.184
A-3 8	3.9	1.320	1.576	2.083
A-9 110	8.6	1.067	1.063	1.135
verage		1.180	1.109	1.306
	ü	5. IM	<u> </u>	
	0.6	1.376	1.037	1.425
	2.4	1.342	1.308	1.756
	5.0	1.075	1.525	1.639
	6.1 7.2	1.098 1.440	0.996 1.040	1.095 1.497
	9.2	1.211	1.077	1.305
	7.6	1.809	0.802	1.452
verage	**	1.336	1.112	1.454
		3. FE		
	0.4	1.885	1.037	1.955
	1.7	1.377	1.129	1.554
-	4.0	1.420	1.100	1.562
	3.4 4.0	1.437 1.390	1.137 1.410	1.633 1.9 <b>6</b> 0
	4.5	1.152	1.338	1.542
	8.8	1.362	1.088	1.482
	5.4	1.346	1.227	1.652
verage		1.421	1.184	1.668

\*Forward Distance: for A(9) is 37.5 ft (25 to 50)
for B(9) is 75 ft (62.5 to 87.5)
for C(9) is 112.5 ft(100 to 125)

(9) refers to number of readings contained in the average value used.

<sup>33</sup> 

It may be recalled that, for E to be constant, E was the required rate for application of the stream energy E to displace the mass, E with an infinite amount of applied effort, a residual amount, E will remain on the surface. In this case, E will remain on the surface. In this case, E will remain on the surface. In this case, E will remain of effort beyond that required to remove the mass E cannot be infinite unless E is infinite. The continued application of effort beyond that required to remove the mass E should be replaced by E where E is the applied effort and E is essentially excess or wasted effort. The value of E should be an increasing function of E. The efficiency defined by E which is approximately equal to E which is approximately equal to E

An additional complication is that  $M_{\odot}$  is increasing with distance during removal and, for the average value of M for a large area, has some value actually greater than  $M_{\odot}$ . Even if this value were known, it would be desirable to express the over-all efficiency in terms of  $M_{\odot}$  itself. In each of the methods, E also changes with distance as the decontamination progresses. In the case of firehosing, the coverage rate decreases (E increases) because the firehose crews automatically tend to slow down as the mass of particles in front of them increases. In the case of the flushers, the adjacent passes tend to get narrower as the distance that the particles are moved sideways on each pass gets smaller. This build-up of mass of material on a very large paved area would be a limiting factor in the use of wet decontamination methods unless the drainage is very favorable. Without data on these interrelated effects, no logical account can be made for them in the development of an efficiency function.

In order to account in some measure for the concept of the residual level, M\*, remaining after application of very large efforts and for the decrease in the efficiency of the methods for removing mass as the effort increases, a generalized efficiency function is defined in terms of the decrease in the fractional amounts of the removable mass per unit of applied effort as follows.

$$\frac{-dM}{(M-M^*)dE} = K(E)$$
 (4.5)

where K(E) is an apparent efficiency factor and has the form

$$K(E) = K_0 E^{-n} \tag{4.6}$$

where n and  $K_0$  are constants. Integrating Eq. 4.5 after substituting Eq. 4.6 between the limits of  $M_0$  at zero effort and M at the effort E gives

$$M = M* + (M_0-M*) \exp \left[\frac{-K_0E^{1-n}}{1-n}\right]$$
 (4.7)

In this case M refers to the  $\overline{M}$  values of Chapter 3 and  $M_0$  the initial levels without consideration of build-up to some level greater than  $M_0$ . In this treatment, all the changes occurring to reduce the apparent efficiency of the method are lumped into the selected functional form for K(E).

Preliminary treatment of the data gave values of n between 0.6 and 0.7. Because of the scatter in the data, the single value, 2/3, was used for all three methods. Equation 4.7, in final form, is

$$M = M* + (M_0 - M)* \exp \left[-3K_0E^{1/3}\right]$$
 (4.8)

where M\* and  $K_{\rm O}$  are the parameters dependent on the method and/or surface.

The foregoing derivations assume a permanent, non-changing surface; actually surfaces such as asphaltic concrete erode while being // decontaminated, but this factor is unimportant in the range of practical interest.

Final values of M\* and \(\alpha\) were derived by using successive approximations of M\*, first in Eq. 4.8 and then in Eq. 4.1, ultimately obtaining values of M\*, M\(\beta\) and \(\alpha\) which fitted the requirements of both sets of equations. This derivation was simplified for the asphaltic concrete and portland cement concrete surfaces by the application of data from STONEMAN I. In the STONEMAN I test series very high effort levels were employed in an attempt to obtain the best possible decontamination with a given method. It was assumed, that these values of M approached the theoretical M\* value. These data, shown in Figs. 4.1.1 and 4.1.2, do appear to correlate quite well with the theoretical curve. Figure 4.1.3 also shows STONEMAN I data, but the correlation is weaker. However, because the absolute mass levels were not accurately determined at STONEMAN I, no attempt was made to differentiate between firehosing and motorized flushing.

Using values of M\* from Figs. 4.1.1, 4.1.2 or 4.1.3 (each being based on Eq. 4.1) Eq. 4.8 was evaluated for the various experimental cases. The resulting curves of the mass level M, in grams per sq ft and effort, E, in man-min per  $10^3$  or  $10^4$  sq ft, are shown in Figs. 4.1.4 through 4.1.9. The actual data points, including one standard deviation are shown for each test. Derived values of  $3K_0$ , M7 and  $\alpha$  are presented in Table 4.2.

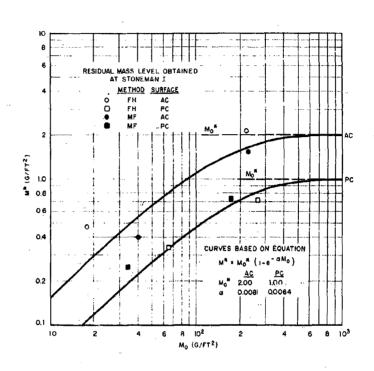


Fig. 4.1.1 Variation in M\* With Increased Initial Mass Mo - Paved Area

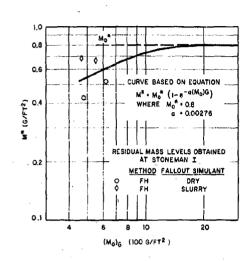


Fig. 4.1.2 Variation of M\* With Initial Mass Loading Plus Loose Gravel (Mo)g, Tar and Gravel Roofing

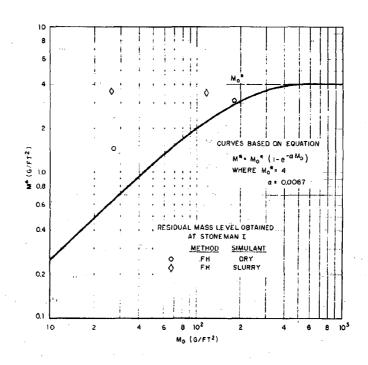


Fig. 4 1.3 Variation in M\* With Initial Mass Mo - Composition Shingle Roofing

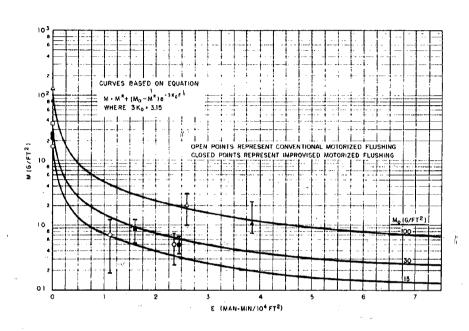


Fig. 4.1.4 Decontamination Effectiveness of Conventional or Improvised Motorized Flushing - Portland Cement Concrete

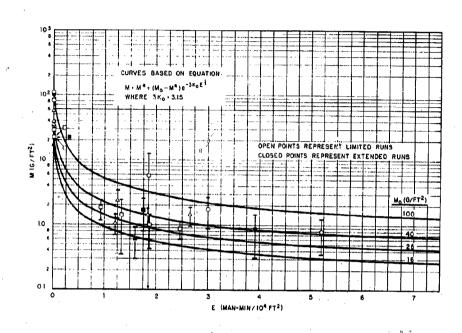


Fig. 4.1.5 Decontamination Effectiveness of Conventional Motorized Flushing - Asphaltic Concrete

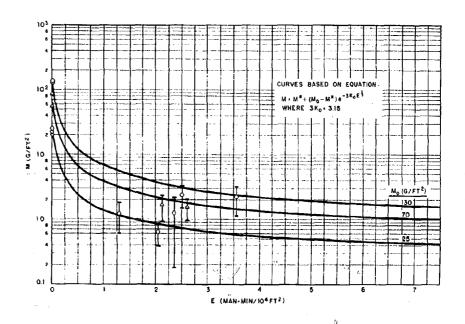


Fig. 4.1.6 Decontamination Effectiveness of Improvised Motorized Flushing - Asphaltic Concrete

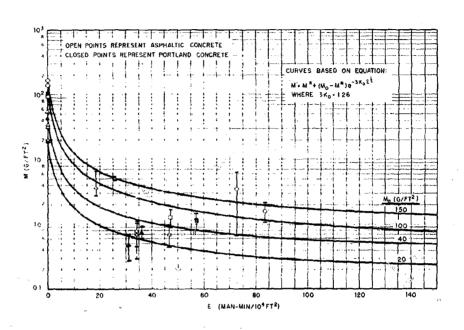


Fig. 4.1.7 Decontamination Effectiveness of Firehosing - Asphaltic or Portland Cement Concrete

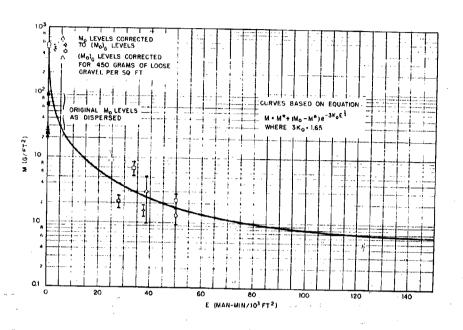


Fig. 4.1.8 Decontamination Effectiveness of Fan Nozzle Firehosing on Tar and Gravel Roofing

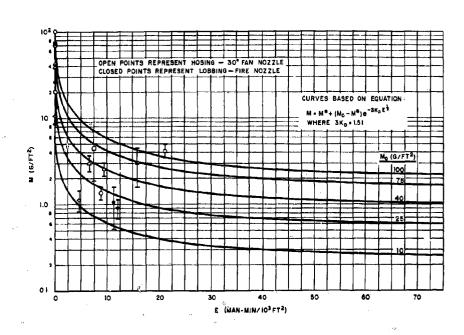


Fig. 4.1.9 Decontamination Effectiveness of Both Direct Hosing With Fan Nozzle and Lobbing With Firehosing Nozzle Techniques on Composition Shingles

TABLE 4.2

Derived Values of 3Ko, Mg and  $\alpha$ 

Test No.	Method	Surface	3K <sub>0</sub>	M#	a
R1 to R6	Firehosing	Tar and Gravel	1.65	0.8	0.00235
R7 to R12	Firehosing	Comp. Shingles	1.51	4.0	0.0067
R13 to R15	Lobbing	Comp. Shingles	1.51	4.0	0.0067
Al to A9	CMF	Asphalt	3.15	2.0	0.0081
A15 to A20	DOF	Asphalt	3.15	2.0	0.0081
AlO to Al2	CMF	Concrete	3.15	1.0	0.0064
A21 to A23	IMF	Concrete	3.15	1.0	0.0064
A13,14 & 40	CMP	Asphalt	3.15	2.0	0.0081
A24 to A29	Firehosing	Asphalt	1.26	2.0	0.0081
A30 to A32	Firehosing	Concrete	1.26	1.0	0.0064

In attempting to fit the appropriate equations to the M vs E plots a number of adverse factors arose which permitted only the roughest of correlations, for example:

- (1) The standard deviations of many of the data points are large, due to the various sources of error discussed in section 4.6.
- (2) Because of the inability to restrict simulant dispersal to the three nominal mass levels (10, 30 and 100 g/ft²), there were seldom more than two data points per curve.
- (3) The range of efforts and initial mass levels covered was too narrow to confirm the equated shape of the curves.

## 4.1.1 Pavements

Plots of the motorised flushing data are contained in Figs. 4.1.4, 4.1.5 and 4.1.6. The curves are fitted to the data points in accordance with Eq. 4.8. The best correlation between the equated curves and the test points is noted on portland cement concrete. For asphaltic concrete, the fit of the curves to the plotted values is about the same for conventional flushing and improvised flushing. In either case the points are, for the most part, contained within a band whose boundaries are defined by the two outermost curves.

Figure 4.1.7 shows the correlation of the decontamination Eq. 4.8 with the firehosing data on portland cement concrete and asphaltic concrete, respectively. For either surface, the points fall reasonably close to the curves, except where effort is less than 25 man-min/10<sup>4</sup>ft<sup>2</sup>. The correlation is probably not as good as that shown by the motorized flushing.

# 4.1.2 Roofs

In the decontamination of tar and gravel roofing, most of the effort is expended in removing the loose gravel. For this reason the initial mass loadings for fitting the equation to the data were increased by  $450~\rm g/ft^2$ , which is the amount of loose gravel estimated to have been present prior to removal. The effect of this adjustment upon the curve of the decontamination equation is shown in Fig. 4.1.8. Although the data are slightly scattered, the test points are reasonably well centered about a curve equated to a corrected mass level of  $500~\rm g/ft^2$ . This indicates that for the original mass loadings of simulant dispersed in these tests, the amount of loose gravel was controlling. It would therefore seem advisable to remove this loose gravel before fallout arrival in order to reduce the recovery effort.

It should be noted from the family of curves in Fig. 4.1.9 that, within the limits of the test data, it is not possible to detect any difference in the decontamination effectiveness of direct firehosing with the fan nozzle or the lobbing with a firehose nozzle on composition shingles.

# 4-2 COMPARISON OF DECONTAMINATION RESULTS WITH RESPECT TO METHODS AND SURFACES

## 4.2.1 Pavements

Figure 4.2.1 indicates the relative effectiveness of pavement decontamination with a typical set of performance curves normalized at a common mass loading of 100 g/ft<sup>2</sup>. It is immediately apparent from the slopes of the curves that motorized flushing is a more efficient removal method than firehosing, regardless of the type of pavement. Where firehosing requires an effort in excess of 75 man-min/10<sup>4</sup> ft<sup>2</sup> to reach the minimum residual mass level, M\*, the motorized methods very nearly approach M\* at the applied effort of only about 20 man-min/10<sup>4</sup> ft<sup>2</sup>. Beyond this point the relatively flat slope of the motorized flushing curves indicates that a continued expenditure of effort would not reduce the levels very much.

The true advantage of motorized flushing over firehosing may not be as great as demonstrated in Fig. 4.2.1, because of the greater distance over which firehosing was required to push the fallout simulant. In this method, had the material been washed across the test strips (as in motorized flushing) instead of along their total length, the curves for firehosing undoubtedly would have been steeper. However, such a manual method, although more flexible, can hardly hope to develop the speed and, hence, the reduced effort characterized by mechanized flushing.

From the effectiveness curves presented in Section 4.1, no significant distinction can be made between the decontamination performances of conventional and improvised flushing. Thus the motorized flushing curves in Fig. 4.2.1 are for both methods. Accordingly, it is concluded that an improvised flusher system is a feasible method that is competitive with a conventional street flusher.

The lower curve in Fig. 4.2.1 demonstrates that for motorized flushing portland cement concrete was more readily cleaned than asphaltic concrete. This difference in decontamination is not detectable until a certain minimum effort has been invested. In the case of firehosing little difference in removal effectiveness could be? detected due to differences in type of surface.

The improved effectiveness experienced during the motorized flushing of the portland cement concrete areas was not surprising, since they were in a better state of repair than the asphaltic concrete test areas. The portland cement concrete surfaces exhibited a relatively smooth rotary-trowelled finish, form lines were infrequent, cracks were practically non-existent, and the slopes were all uniform though almost flat. On the other hand the asphaltic concrete surfaces were inherently rougher in texture, they contained depressions and swells, and they exhibited reversals in the cross slopes. All these factors are, of course, detrimental to the cleaning action of fluid streams, especially those that are mechanized and have a fixed orientation with respect to the vehicle.

## 4.2.2 Special Tests on Pavements

Tests Al3 and Al4 were conducted with the conventional flusher on a 500 ft long, hilly roadway. The average grade over the central 200 ft was 5.8 percent and that of the two end portions (approximately 150 ft each) was 0.3 percent. Since the road was crowned, the first two passes were made from the center line, one downhill and one uphill to avoid having to change the position of the nozzles. Two more passes, one along each curb completed a test run.

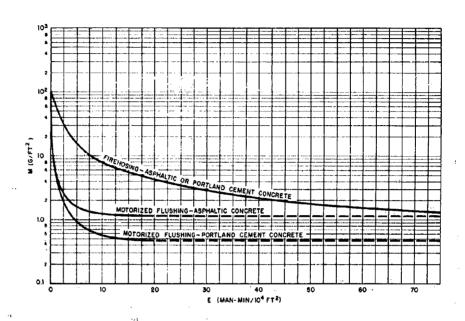


Fig. 4.2.1 Comparative Effectiveness of Motorized Flushing and Firehosing on Pavement

These runs demonstrated that grades of 6 percent or less do appreciably change the decontamination performance relative to that found for the 150 ft, relatively level, test strips. There were indications that a longer and/or steeper grade would reduce flusher speed appreciably on an uphill pull, especially when fully loaded with water. This, of course, would increase the effort and the consumption of water.

Test A40 was performed as a combined sweeper-flusher operation on a straight, level roadway having a relatively flat crown. The results are shown in Table 3.1. A conventional street sweeper removed the bulk of the contaminant, leaving an average level of 23 g/ft² for the flusher. Based on tests for comparable mass loadings (refer to Table 3.1 and Fig. 4.1.5) the flusher did not provide the expected degree of effectiveness. For the effort expended, the final level should have been nearer 1 g/ft² rather than 1.68 g/ft². Even so, the latter value was less than would be expected from a sweeping operation alone (see Volume III of the STONEMAN II report series). Assuming that Eq. 4.8 and the appropriate constants apply, a flushing operation alone could presumably have reduced the original mass level of 141 g/ft² to 1.68 g/ft² for an effort no greater than the total expended in the combined operation (7 man-min/104 ft²).

# 4.2.3 Roofs

In order to evaluate the relative decontamination effectiveness of wet methods on roofs, M vs E curves were drawn for two initial mass levels (25 and 100 g/ft²) as shown in Figs. 4.2.2 and 4.2.3. Equation 4.8 was used to obtain these curves for tar and gravel and composition shingles, respectively.

As mentioned before, for a given initial mass loading, a single curve represents either the fan nozzle or the fire nozzle as employed on composition shingles. This is surprising since one would normally expect the direct application at roof level of a high pressure stream, as typified by the fan nozzle, to provide greater removal effectiveness than indirect lobbing of a low pressure fire stream from ground level. Such factors as stream direction relative to the roof's slope, nozzle pressure and stream impact were all to the advantage of the fan nozzle. Roof slopes were the same in all cases. Therefore, the competitive performance of the lobbing procedure must have been due, in part, to a superior stream pattern. Increased thickness in the water film flowing down the roof may also have been a contributing factor. This increase in film thickness was probably equal to the increase in stream flow rate; namely, 20 percent (72 gpm vs. 60 gpm).

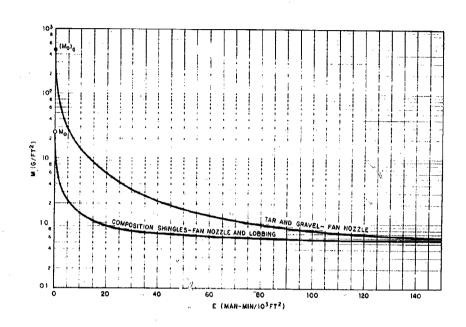


Fig. 4.2.2 Comparative Effectiveness of Decontamination Methods on Roofs for an  $\rm M_{\odot}$  of 25  $\rm g/ft^2$ 

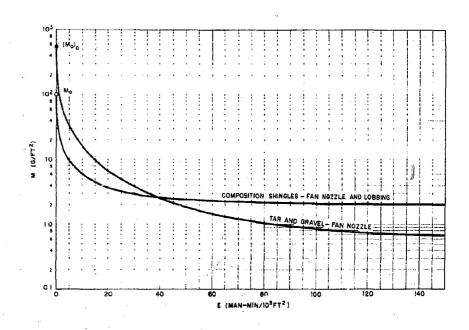


Fig. 4.2.3 Comparative Effectiveness of Decontamination Methods on Roofs for an  $M_{0}$  of 100  $g/ft^{2}$ 

The 30° fan nozzle was used on both types of roofing surfaces tested. Besides differences in the surface materials, other differences in the test conditions were: the tar and gravel roofs were almost flat, while the composition shingle roofs had a slope of 1/2.5; in the decontamination of tar and gravel roofs the gravel had been removed along with the contaminant, resulting in a considerable effort independent of the initial mass level. Mainly because of the latter, it is reasonable that composition shingles should clean more readily for a limited expenditure of effort, say not more than 40 man-min/103ft².

However, the curves of Fig. 4.2.3 for higher initial mass loadings (100 g/ft<sup>2</sup>) indicate that for efforts greater than 40 man-min/ $10^3$ ft<sup>2</sup>, composition shingles do not decontaminate to as low a level as tar and gravel roofing. This occurs in spite of the fact that the curves for tar and gravel are practically the same for the two mass loadings represented.

# 4.3 EFFECT OF INITIAL MASS LEVEL AND EFFORT ON RESIDUAL MASS LEVEL

The relationships expressed in Equations 4.1 and 4.8 were derived using the hypothesis that the residual mass level is a function of the initial mass level and effort expended. The two equations can be combined giving

$$M = M_0^* (1-e^{-\alpha M_0}) + \left[M_0 - M_0^* (1-e^{-\alpha M_0})\right] e^{-3K_0E^{1/3}}$$

Figures 4.3.1 to 4.3.4 show graphically the stated relationships for each of the surface-method combinations evaluated.

These curves can be utilized to determine what level of effort is needed to produce a required residual mass level for a range of expected mass loadings.

## 4.4 OPERATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF DECONTAMINATION EQUIPMENT

Although the equipment used in these tests is, for the most part, comprised of standard components, the performances required in the removal of dry fallout are not necessarily the same as those for which the equipment was originally designed. In seeking to achieve a satisfactory balance among such factors as removal effectiveness, effort,

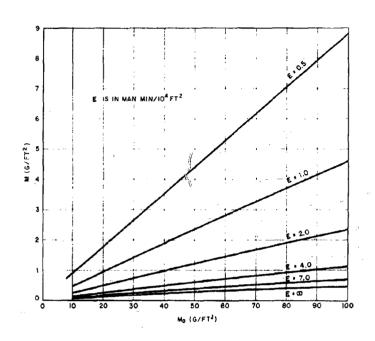


Fig. 4.3.1 Residual Mass as a Function of Initial Mass Loading - Conventional or Improvised Motorized Flushing of Portland Cement Concrete

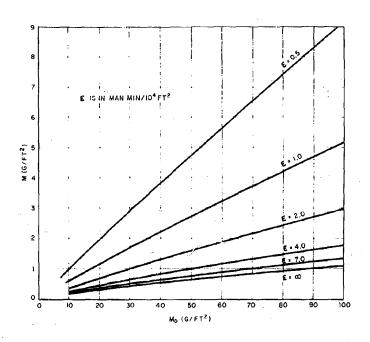


Fig. 4.3.2 Residual Mass as a Function of Initial Mass Loading - Conventional or Improvised Motorized Flushing of Asphaltic Concrete

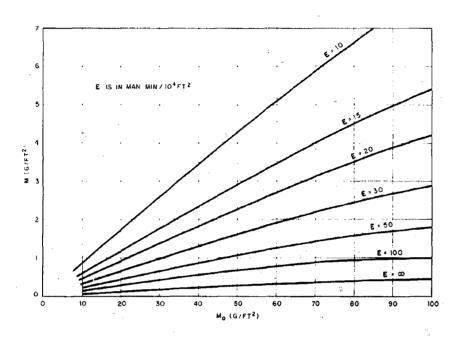


Fig. 4.3.3 Residual Mass as a Function of Initial Mass Loading - Firehosing Asphaltic or Portland Cement Concrete

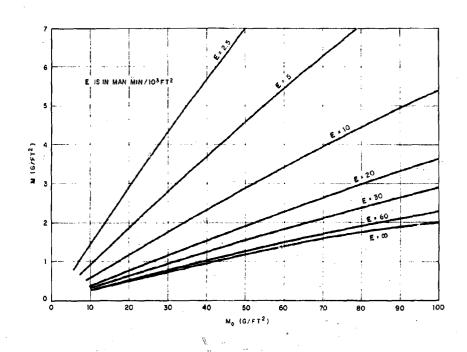


Fig. 4.3.4 Residual Mass as a Function of Initial Mass Loading - Fan Nozzle or Lobbing Techniques on Composition Shingles

and water consumption the mode of operation influences the operating characteristics of the equipment. These and other controlling factors are discussed below.

# 4.4.1 Conventional Motorized Flushing

Conventional street flushers are normally employed to push debris from the middle of streets to the gutters where it can be picked up later by other means such as sweepers. In the removal of fallout material, flushers are expected to have the capability to clean gutters also. It was found during the tests that this could only be accomplished by straddling the curb, otherwise large amounts of contaminant would be splattered on sidewalks, yards and building fronts. Because of the many obstructions commonly located along curbs, flushers should be outfitted with special nozzles which can be swung out over the gutters.

The curbless roads so prevalent in military installation and open highways are best suited to flusher operations. Here the motorized flusher can take full advantage of its high pressure system to throw the fallout particles free of the roadway and beyond the shoulders. When using this technique, the contaminant may settle in the drain ditches adjacent to the roadway, rather than passing into the sewer system, and prevent the immediate attainment of the desired decontamination effectiveness.

The effort required to remove heavier mass loadings (approaching 200 g/ft²) by motorized flushing techniques is known to be quite high. If the bulk of material is first removed by a sweeping operation, flushing can then be utilized to best advantage to obtain a low residual level. Test A-40 showed that such a combination was feasible. Although not necessarily more effective than flushing itself, the fact remains that sweeping reduces the total effort ultimately required of flushing to reach a given residual mass level. In view of the far greater availability of street sweepers, a combined operation would be advantageous.

The basic design and arrangement of flusher nozzles is not particularly adaptable to decontamination work. Some criticisms are:

- The broad stream angle, which is greater than 90 degrees, doesn't permit the desired control over the direction in which the contaminant is trajected.
- The stream pattern is of nonuniform thickness and contributes to uneven removal.
- 3. The nozzle arrangement is such that it is extremely swkward to adjust and match the water jets to prevent streaking.

4. When the above condition is satisfied only one set of wheels are provided a clean path to run in. The other set must track through fallout material.

# 4.4.2 Improvised Motorized Flushing

The improvised flushing overcomes the first three objections cited above. In addition, the flusher bar tested can be attached to any portable tank equipped with a prime mover and a defense pump to convert it into an effective flusher. The performance of the improvised nozzle system in these tests indicate the feasibility of such an arrangement.

Improvised flushing systems offer a wide range of possibilities since there is very little size restriction in construction of the nozzle bar. Small highly maneuverable jeep drawn systems might be designed for sidewalks and ramps. Extra large capacity systems, consisting of a series of tank trailers drawn by a tractor, could be used to decontaminate long expanses of highway and important access roads.

The main objective of improvised flushers, however, would be to supplement the relatively small number of conventional flushers presently available.

# 4.4.3 Firehosing

Firehosing as used in the removal of fallout is an adaptation of readily available equipment for furnishing water at high pressures to move particles along the surface (rather than to extinguish fires.) Experience has shown that, contrary to fire fighting practice, where 2-1/2 and 3 in. hoses are used, 1-1/2 in. hoses and nozzles give the best performance. The manpower required to properly direct 2-1/2 in. nozzles and oppose their thrust is prohibitive. The 2-1/2 in. hose is used instead to supply water for two 1-1/2 in. nozzles as employed in the paved area tests. The use of a jeep or similar vehicle to drag several hundred feet of such large hose as the cleaning operation progresses, cuts the manpower requirements in half. It also serves to stabilize the operation into an uninterrupted removal process by freeing the nozzle men from hose tending duties.

Working with firehoses and opposing 40 pounds of nozzle thrust on pitched roofs can be razardous. Pressure surges, nozzle whip, slippery footing and worker ratigue, taken singly or together, can result in serious casualties. For this reason, lobbing streams from ground level onto roofs with steep slopes is a more desirable technique; and, for most prominently sloped roofs, it is probably just as effective as direct hosing at roof level (see Fig. 4.1.9).

Tar and gravel roofs do not lend themselves to lobbing techniques due to the large amount of gravel that must be removed and the low roof pitch. Because of their relatively flat slopes, however, decontamination operations with high pressure streams can be carried out in comparative safety.

Before initiating any wet decontamination procedures on roofs, all electrical power to buildings should be cut. Care must be exercised to not inadvertently play water streams onto nearby power lines and transformers which may still be activated.

The advantage of fan shaped streams over standard fire streams was not definitely established (as they were not tested under the same conditions). The general improvement in the overall technique employed on tar and gravel may have been more responsible for the increased performance than the fan nozzle.

## 4.5 SOURCES OF ERROR

Error in the results came from two major areas, namely the determination of the mass level on the surface and the performance of the decontamination equipment. The sources of error in the performance data are quite limited and fairly unimportant. Possible sources of error include: total time consumed; equipment variability such as pump, and hence nozzle pressures; and operator variability, due primarily to increasing experience.

The main sources of mass level error include the following areas: synthetic fallout composition, instrumentation, distribution and redistribution of the synthetic fallout, and surface condition. Considerable variation in composition existed between individual batches of the synthetic fallout material (see Vol. I of this series of reports for further details). Although there is presently insufficient information available to determine the importance of these variations upon the results, it has been assumed to be relatively unimportant when comparing the various methods. The primary source of instrumentation error was from the mobile shielded detector; it is estimated that timing variations and change of response in the crystal caused an error of approximately 12.5 %. The 4-pi gamma ionization chamber and the large sample counter, being laboratory instruments, have an inherent error of less than 2 %. Redistribution by wind of the synthetic fallout during or after spreading was the largest unknown factor in the data. Even a low wind blowing during the spreading operation could fractionate the synthetic fallout by carrying away the fine particles while allowing coarser material to settle on the surface.

This fractionation, although occurring before surface readings were taken with the mobile shielded detector, could cause a variation in the specific activity of the contaminant, producing anomalous readings. The most important wind effects, however, were those produced by a moderately strong wind blowing across the test strip after the initial reading  $(I_r)$  had been taken but prior to decontamination. In such cases, the calculated initial mass level could be in error by as much as a factor of two. The two major sources of errors, wind effects and instrument error, are largely cancelled out by using the calibration factor k (see Appendix C). The variation in the individual readings, expressed as one standard deviation, are shown on Figs. 4.1.4 through 4.1.9.

## CHAPTER 5

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 CONCLUSIONS

Two parameters, derived from the test data, and used for the comparison of methods, were  $K_{\rm O}$  which is an expression of rate of removal and Mg which is an expression for the ultimate level obtainable at very high effort levels. The derived values of  $3K_{\rm O}$  and Mg are shown below.

Method-Surface	3K <sub>o</sub>	M <del>≭</del> O
Conventional Flushing - Asphaltic Concrete	3.15	2.00
Conventional Flushing - Portland Concrete	3.15	1.00
Improvised Flushing - Asphaltic Concrete	3.15	2.00
Improvised Flushing - Portland Concrete	3.15	1.00
Firehosing - Asphaltic Concrete	1.26	2.00
Firehosing - Portland Concrete	1.26	1.00
Firehosing - Tar and Gravel Roofing	1.65	0.80
Firehosing - Composition Shingles	1.51	4.00
Lobbing - Composition Shingles	1.51	4.00

The wet decontamination methods tested were found to be effective in removing all the initial mass loadings used in the tests on all the surfaces. For any given method/surface combination, the removal effectiveness was observed to be a function of the initial mass loading and the effort expended. In case of tar and gravel roofing, the amount of loose gravel must be taken into account.

The performance of motorized flushing was superior to that of firehosing for both types of pavement.

Portland cement concrete was more readily decontaminated by motorized flushing than asphaltic concrete.

An improvised flusher system was found to be a feasible method and also found to be competitive with a conventional type flusher, insofar as decontamination performance is concerned.

Streets having a prominent grade (not more than 6 percent) do not impair the operation nor the removal effectiveness of motorized flushing techniques.

The fan nozzle represents an adequate tool for the decontamination of roofs, including tar and gravel and composition shingles.

Lobbing of firestreams from ground level is competitive with direct hosing at roof level, providing roof surfaces are reasonably smooth and roof slopes furnish ample drainage.

#### 5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Because of the difficulty in evaluating the exactness of fit of the decontamination equation with the test data it will be necessary in future tests to determine the respective values of M\*, M\*, \alpha and K, over a broader range of effort and initial mass loadings. The introduction of more closely controlled decontamination rates and other related parameters in future tests should further improve the present theoretical equations or provide information that will lead to the development of a more exact theory. This would provide more reliable methods of interpolating and extrapolating the data to other conditions of interest and reduce the requirement for costly and extensive experimentation.

As a means of improving the performance of wet removal methods, continued studies should be made of nozzle design and arrangement for both mechanized and manual techniques. This could be an extension of the type of investigations described in Appendix A and would measure the importance of stream pattern, nozzle attitude, stream energy etc. with respect to removal effectiveness and effort.

More complete testing of the performance of combined decontamination procedures (dry and wet) is recommended, in order to fully exploit the best features of each.

The possibilities of lobbing techniques should be explored in order to define the limits imposed by roof slope and surface roughness.

A means for controlling the gravel removed from tar and gravel roofs should be developed to minimize or eliminate the problem of ultimately having to remove this same gravel from building surroundings.

The removal of loose gravel prior to the arrival of fallout should be considered as a means for reducing the recovery effort expended on tar and gravel roofs.

Approved by:

C. F. MILLER

Head, Chemical Technology Division

For the Scientific Director

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#### APPENDIX A

## PRELIMINARY STUDIES

A preliminary experiment was conducted on a complete assortment of nozzles to observe the behavior of jet impact as a function of nozzle pressure and range. The tests consisted of directing the nozzled streams against a flat plate fixed to a weighted pendulum. Any deflection noted in this apparatus was directly proportional to the impact forces acting on it.

Tables A.1, A.2 and A.3 show the test results on three types of nozzles; fire, street flusher and specially manifolded nozzles, respectively. As expected, the deflection (and hence the impact) increased with the pressure for all nozzles tested regardless of type. Except for the street flusher nozzles, however, the influence of range\* on deflection (impact) was negligible. Table A.1 indicates that, for any fire nozzle under a given pressure, the deflection was essentially constant over ranges of 1 to 8 feet. For the specially manifolded nozzles covered in Table A.3 deflections were again almost constant at ranges of 1/2 to 4 feet. Greater ranges were of no interest, since these nozzles were designed to be used relatively close to surfaces.

As shown in Table A.2, impact tests of conventional flusher nozzles were performed at three nominal orifice settings. Because of increasing difficulties with the pressure system it was impossible to duplicate flow rates of certain runs, particularly at the 1/8 inch setting.

At a pressure of 40 psi and a setting of 1/16 inch, the deflections appear inversely proportional to the range. Loss of impact was about 9 percent as the range increased from 1 to 3 feet. Where a 3/64 inch setting was employed, the deflections were unaffected by the slight changes in range at the given test pressures (40 and 50 psi). A break up in stream pattern was observed later during field runs at higher pressures; hence, it is possible, that for this specific nozzle design, 3/64 inch is a critical setting. It was therefore decided to use the 1/16 inch setting during actual street flusher tests as it used the least volume of water without permitting separation of the jet stream.

\*The distance between nozzle and impact plate at zero deflection.

TABLE A.1
Impact Tests of Fire Nozzles

Nozzle Type	Orifice Diam. (in.)	Press (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Range (ft)	Deflection (in.)	•
1-1/2 in. Fog Nozzle	5/8	40 80 125	68 96 124	8 8 <b>8</b>	3-1/2 7-1/4 11-3/4	
1-1/2 in. Fire Nozzle	5/8	40	70 72 72	8 4 1	4-1/2 4-1/8	
	er in de la company de la comp	80 "	100 100 102	# 8 4	7-3/4 8 8	
		125	126 126 126	8 4 1	11-3/4 11-3/4 11	
1-1/2 in. Forester	1/2	50	50 52 52	8 4 1	3-1/2 3-3/8 3-1/8	
$\frac{e^{2\sqrt{N}}}{n} = \frac{n}{n} \frac{1}{n}$		100	70 72 74	8	6-1/2 6-3/4 6-3/8	
	,	175	96 94 98	8	11-1/2 11 11	
1-1/2 in. Forester	7/16	75	46 50	8	3-3/4 3-5/8	
e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e		150	62 64 67	1 8 4	3-7/8 7 6-7/8	
	w *	200	67 72 74 74	1 8 4 1	7-1/8 9 9-1/4 9-1/8	
1-1/2 in Forester	3/8	75	36 38 39	8 4 1	3 3-1/8 2-3/4	

TABLE A.1 (Contd)

Impact Tests of Fire Nozzles

Nozzle Type	Orifice Diam. (in.)	Press (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Range (ft)	Deflection (in.)
		150 200	50 52 51 56 60	8 1 8 4	5-3/4 5-5/8 5-3/4 7-1/4 7-3/8 7-1/8
1-1/2 in. Forester	5/16	75 150	59 24 26 25 34	1 8 4 1 8 4	2 1-3/4 1-3/4
		200	25 34 33 38 40 38	1 8 4	3-3/4 3-7/8 4-3/4 5 5-1/8
Curve Tip (Devilbis)	5/16	75 150 200	21 22 30 30 34 37 34	84184184	1-1/2 1-5/8 1-1/2 3-1/4 3-3/8 3-1/2 4-1/4 4-1/2
l in. Lance - Conical Tip	3/8	50 100 150	## 3# 3# 56 56	1 6 1 6 1 6	4-3/4 1-5/8 1-1/2 3 3 4-1/2 4-3/8
Continued		. 200	50 50	6	5-7/8 5-3/4

TABLE A.1 (Contd)

Impact Tests of Fire Nozzles

Nozzle Type	Orifice Diam. (in.)	Press (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Range (ft)	Deflection (in.)
Curve Tip	3/8	50	22	6	1-1/4
		100	30 30	6	1-1/4 2-1/2
	·	150	<b>30</b> 38 38 44	6	2 <b>-</b> 5/8 3 <b>-7</b> /8 3 <b>-7</b> /8
•	•	200	77 77 20	6	5 5

TABLE A.2

Impact Test of Conventional Flusher Nozzles

Orifice Dimensions* (in. X in.)	Press (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Range (ft)	Deflection (in.)	
8-1/2 x 1/8	10	140	2	38	
	15 20	180 220	5	38 <b>6</b> 3 87	
8-1/2 x 1/16	25	130	2	48	
	30 40	140 180	2	48 63 83 90	
		180	3 2	90	
		180	1	91	
8-1/2 x 3/64	30 40	80	2	35	
	40	90	2	35 49	
a ·	50	90 100 100	1 3 2	49 62 61	

\*Fractions shown for minor orifice dimension are approximate.

TABLE A.3

Impact Test of Specially Manifolded Nozzles

Nozzle Designation*	No. of Nozzles	Orifice Diam. (in.)	Press (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Range (ft)	Defletn (in.)
U1550	6	11/64	50	32 32 32	1/2 1 4	1-3/4 1-3/4 1-3/4
			100	46 46 46	1/2 1 4	3-1/2 3-1/2 3-1/2
		e.	150	56 54 54	đo "	5-1/2 5-1/4 5-1/4
1 		۲.	200	64 64 64	đo	7-1/8 7 6-7/8
U1570	4	13/64	50	30 30 30	đo	1-1/2 1-1/2 1-5/8
	· ·		100	42 42 42	đo	3-1/4 3-1/4 3-1/8
		. "	150	50 50 50	 <b>đo</b> .	5 4-7/8 4 <b>-</b> 7/8
			200	58 58 58	đo	6-3/8 6-3/8 6-1/4
U0070	4	13/64	50	26 26 26	đo	1-1/2 1-1/2 1-1/2

TABLE A.3 (Contd)

Impact Test of Specially Manifolded Nozzles

Nozzle Designation*	No. of Nozzles	Orifice Diam. (in.)	Press (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Range (ft)	Deflctn (in.)
			100	34 34 34	đo	2-7/8 2-3/4 2-3/4
,			150	44 44	đo	4-3/8 4-1/4 4-1/8
			200	50 50 50	đo	5-3/4 5-5/8 5-1/2

\*Model numbers of Spraying Systems Co

## Improvised Jeep Flusher Tests

Because street flusher was being repaired at the time, it was necessary to carry out interim test runs with an improvised flusher system. This system consisted of a jeep drawn crash trailer, with sets of suitably manifolded nozzles attached to the bumper of the jeep. A tank, with high pressure pump, on the trailer supplied water through hoses to the nozzle manifold. The latter was made up of 6 nozzles spaced on 5-5/8 inch centers along a 1-1/4 inch pipe. Fan shaped streams from each nozzle combined to form a continuous flat sheet of water about 36 inches wide.

Cleaning passes were made at controlled speeds over asphalt paved areas covered with approximately 100 gms of nonradioactive simulated fallout soil per square foot. The attack angle  $\alpha$  (between the stream and the pavement) and the azimuth angle  $\beta$  (between the stream and the direction of jeep travel) were varied to determine the optimum nozzle attitude. A constant range of 24 inches was maintained between the nozzle tips and the paved surface. Four different sets of nozzles were tested. The cleaning rate was paced by the visual removal of the fallout simulant.

Table A.4 contains the jeep flusher system performance figures for those runs which appeared to give an estimated average removal effectiveness of 95 percent. It is of minor importance to note here that the best performance from the standpoint of rate of removal and water consumption was obtained with the U1550 and U1520 nozzles. The really significant findings concern the behavior of nozzle arrangements belonging to this general design.

Before discussing the findings it is necessary to explain two of the column headings - the first being the one entitled Economy Ratio  $(\rho)$ . Since it is desirable to achieve a high rate of removal with a low expenditure of water, the ratio of rate over unit consumption would seem to indicate relative cost of the various test runs. A high value of  $\rho$  means savings in water and time (as well as dosage to recovery teams). It should be noted that  $\rho$  has the rather unusual dimensions of ft<sup>4</sup>/gal/min. Another value was also computed and entered in the column headed Unit Energy. This quantity is the stream energy per unit area in ft  $1b/ft^2$ .

During the test runs it was observed that less streaking occurred and hence greater removal effectiveness resulted for attack angles of 30 and 45 degrees and an azimuth angle of 60 degrees. A study of Table A.4 discloses that the economy ratios were also greatest at these settings, ranging from 5 to 6.7.

TABLE A.4

Improvised Jeep Flusher Tests

(psi) (gpm)	Transfer of the second	.5	Unit Consumption gal 1000 ft <sup>2</sup>	1	Attack Angle (QP)	Azimuth Angle (90)	Unit Energy (ft-lb/ft <sup>2</sup> )
	<b>*</b>			7.4.0	3 \$ 8	5.7.7	± £2 8
<sup>ֈ</sup> ፠	333		8		ያኳ	<u>, 7</u>	χ.ες
<i>ଖ୍</i> ଅ ଅ	333 333 333		888	မာမာယ္ က်က်က်	84°8	<mark>ጸ</mark> ጸጸ ့	8 8 8 3 3 3 3
45 32 800 45 32 400 45 32 400	9 9 9		888	5.0 5.0 5.0	878	<b>888</b>	<b>&amp;&amp;&amp;</b>
17.5 18	8 8 8		₹ %	6.0	24. 30.	88.	88 95
18 18	208 278 8		<i>6</i> .29	4.25 9.65 9.65	8. <del>1</del>	<b>ሙ</b>	00 11
, <b>81</b>	350		ス	<b>2.9</b>	45	8	&
27.5	278		86	2.8	54	8	100
65 23 270	270		. 85	3.5	54	93	106

Middel numbers of Spraying Systems Co.

77

### Tests of Fire Streams

Tests were also conducted with a variety of hand held nozzles which provided three basic stream patterns; i.e., cylindrical, conical, and fan shaped. The test surface (pavement) the concentration of soil simulant (100 g/ft $^2$ ) and the required removal effectiveness (95) were the same as before. Cleaning passes were again made at visually controlled rates. By using a 500 gpm defense pump at the hydrant a wide selection of pressures were available. Standard 1-1/2 inch firehose was used with al. 'he nozzles tested.

Table A.5 gives the results for the cylindrical and conical stream patterns. A study of the tabulated values discloses that, wherever two or more runs were made with a given nozzle the rate always increased directly with the pressure. Curves of pressure P versus rate R are shown on the log-log plots of Figs. A.1 through A.4. With but one exception, these curves appear as straight lines having the same positive slope m equals 2. The general equation fitting these curves is

$$ln P_2 - ln P_1 = m (ln R_2 - ln R_2).$$

When  $P_1$  equals 1,  $\ln P_1$  is zero and  $\ln R_1$  becomes a constant  $\ln G$  and

$$\ln p_0 = \ln (R_0/G)^m$$

or

$$R = G'p^{1/m} \tag{A.1}$$

From a further examination of Table A.5 it can be seen that, with one exception,\* the unit consumption remains fairly constant for a particular nozzle. This all points to the possibility of some correlation between the constant in equation A.1 and the constant behavior of the unit consumption. By definition,

Unit Consumption 
$$C_u = Q/R \text{ gal/ft}^2$$
 (A.2)

Since Q is for all practical purposes equal to orifice area "a" times  $\rm pl/2$ ,

$$C_{\rm u} = a p^{1/2}/R$$

or

$$R = \frac{a}{C_{11}} p^{1/2} \tag{A.3}$$

\*The exception noted here and earlier involves the same group of data; namely, that obtained from testing the 1-1/2 inch suicide nozzle with a specially reammed 5/8 inch tip.

TABLE A.5

Tests of Handheld Fire Streams

Nozzle Type	Orifice Diam. (in.)	Range (ft)	Press. (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Rate (ft <sup>2</sup> /min)	Unit Cnsmptn gal	Econ. Ratio
		Cylin	drical P	attern	<u> </u>	A c	
1-1/2 in. suicide	5/8	6-8	38 44 65 75	70 75 90 100	260 235 285 333	269 319 315 300	0.97 0.78 0.91 1.11
1-1/2 in. fog	5/8	<b>6-</b> 8	75 80	98 96	333 333	295 288	1.13 1.16
l-1/2 in. suicide	5/8	15	44 50 70	70 80 95	410 490 506	170 163 188	2.41 3.00 2.70
1-1/2 in. fog	5/8	10-12 15 20-30	36 54 70	68 77 90	370 465 500	184 165 180	2.00 2.82 2.78
1-1/2 in. Forester	1/2	12 12-15 20-30 15-20 15-20	58 60 96 110 120	55 56 71 77 80	285 250 385 350 385	194 224 186 220 240	1.47 1.12 2.07 1.59 1.60
1-1/2 in. Forester	7/16	20-25 15-20 20-30 20-30	70 70 100 144	46 46 54 62	285 244 333 333	161 188 162 186	1.77 1.30 2.06 1.79
l in Lance (Strait Tip)	3/8	6-8	160 180	45 47	181 150	249 313	0.73
l in. Lance (Curve Tip)	3/8	6-8	160	39	215	181	1.19
Continued						<del></del>	

TABLE A.5 (Contd)
Tests of Handheld Fire Streams

Nozzle Type	Orifice Diam. (in.)	Range (ft)	Press. (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Rate (ft <sup>2</sup> /min)	Unit Cnsmptn gal 1000 ft <sup>2</sup>	Econ Ratio (\rho)
		Coni	cal Patt	erns			
1-1/2 in. Reamed	5/8	10	34 37 46 50 66 75	66 70 77 80 92 99	470 485 610 565 900 900	140 144 126 141 102 108	3.36 3.36 4.83 4.00 8.82 8.34
1-1/2 in. Reamed	1/2	6-8	46 70 100	48 60 72	320 345 510	150 174 141	2.13 1.98 3.61
l-1/2 in. Reamed	7/16	6-8	100 135 150	54 62 66	300 355 380	180 175 174	1.67 2.03 2.18
l-1/2 in. Reamed	3/8	6-8	115 150	46 52	276 330	167 157	1.65 2.10
1-1/2 in. fog	3/8	15-20	90	112	307	137	2.47
1-1/2 in.	3/8	12-15 12 10-12 15	120 140 160 200	47 50 53 58	350 390 417 460	134 128 127 126	2.61 3.05 3.28 3.65
**	large S	cale Sto	neman II	Dress R	ehearsals		
1-1/2 in. suicide	5/8	15-20	68 80	93 100	530 650	175 154	3.03 4.22
1-1/2 in. Reamed	5/8	10	70 75	95 98	860 790	110 124	74 <b>6</b> 2 7402
1-1/2 in. Forester	1/2	15-20	110	78	460	169	2.72

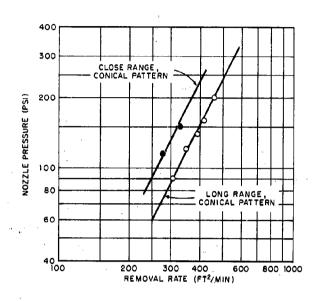


Fig. A.1 Performance Curves of 3/8 inch Forester Nozzles

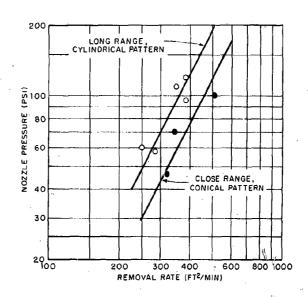


Fig. A.2 Performance Curves for 1/2 inch Forester Nozzles

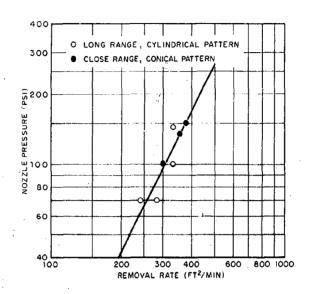


Fig. A.3 Performance Curves for the 7/16 inch Forester Nozzles

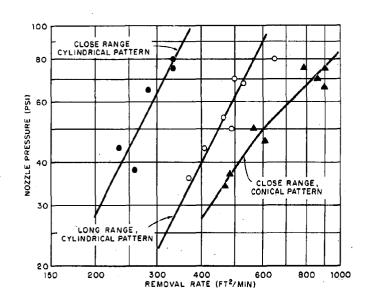


Fig. A.4 Performance Curves for 5/8 inch Fire Nozzles

Comparing equation A.1 and A.3; if

slope 
$$m = 2$$
 (A.4)

then  $G^{\dagger} = a/C_1$ , (A.5)

However, orifice size "a" is constant for any one nozzle thus making  $C_{\Omega}$  a constant also. Hence equation A.3 becomes

$$R = 0' p^{1/2}$$
 (A.6)

which is identical in form to the general expression in equation A.1 The above expression describes the dependence of rate upon pressure within the limits of the available test data. It therefore appears that, for a given removal effectiveness, increased nozzle pressure will not cause an increase in unit consumption.

During the test runs with the 5/8 inch tipped nozzles (suicide or fog) it was found that by reaching out beyond the usual range to 15 or 20 feet the cleaning rate increased 33 to 43 percent. The unit consumption was decreased an average of 41 percent causing the economy ratio percent in performance it is necessary to compare descriptions of the stream behavior for the two techniques used.

When directing the stream at close range, 6-8 feet from the nozzle, the pattern is usually cylindrical and compact. Because the resulting impact region is only a few inches square, the stream cannot be readily made to provide the coverage necessary to maintain a high rate of removal. In addition, the angle of attack (~30°) is so great that an appreciable fraction of the flow is wasted in narmless splattering.

By contrast, working at long range allows the stream to open up, thus providing an impact region of approximately one foot square. Reaching 15 or 20 feet flattens the attack angle (~10°) to such an extent that splattering is almost eliminated. Most of the water, upon striking the surface, scoots forward 10 feet or more before losing its cleaning power. In this way the removal action is taking place over an area which exceeds that of the initial impact region by several square feet. This larger coverage plus the more complete utilization of the stream's available energy appears to be largely responsible for the improvement observed. It is also possible that this water which ranges far ahead of the main stream may condition the contaminant in advance making it fluid and thus more readily removable.

Because of the above findings, the 1-1/2 inch Forester\* nozzles having 1/2 inch and 7/16 inch tips, respectively, were tested at long range only. Table A.5 indicates that these nozzles, when so employed, exhibited greater economy ratios than the larger nozzles (5/8 inch tip size) used at close range. This further substantiates the advantage of the long range technique.

Two special 3/8 inch nozzles on 1 inch lances were tested and found unsatisfactory. Their stream patterns were too small (even at ranges longer than 8 feet) to permit high removal rates. Low economy ratios are also evident in this case.

In order to increase the size of the impact region without increasing the range, the tips of four nozzles were reamed so as to create conical stream patterns. Test results for these nozzles are shown in the latter half of Table A.5. For the larger nozzles, 5/8 and 1/2 inch orifices, the performance of conical patterns demonstrated a definite improvement in cleaning efficiency. Rates and economy ratios went up appreciably as unit consumption decreased. Unfortunately, with the creation of the conical stream pattern, a pulsating reaction occurred at the nozzle. This pulsation was too strong for the nozzle man to ignore, since he was kept off balance trying to oppose the fluctuating thrust. For this reason the reammed nozzles could not be recommended and were not used later during Stoneman II tests. In principle the close range conical stream is promising, but a simple means must be found to form such a pattern without the attendant pulsation.

Performance of a Forester nozzle with a 3/8 inch tip was better than with the reammed version of either the 3/8 or 7/16 inch tips. This nozzle gave a conical stream pattern naturally (without reaming) and appeared to be more efficient than fire nozzles with conventional 5/8 inch orifices. However, the latter type proved to be capable of significantly greater rates and economy ratios, as eventually discovered in the full scale dress rehearsals just prior to Stoneman II. Results of these and other runs are given at the bottom of Table A.5.

The foregoing firestream tests culminated in the choice of a nozzle with a 5/8 inch orifice for the actual field tests. Since the more expensive fog nozzle offered no particular advantages, the suicide model or plain fire nozzle was finally selected. The nozzle was, of course, to be used in conjunction with the long range techniques. In developing this technique, it appeared that a flatter attack angle would further improve the removal performance. This means lowering the nozzle from about three feet to perhaps one foot above the surface.

<sup>\*</sup>The Forester nozzle like the suicide nozzle is a conventional fire nozzle. However, it can be fitted with various tips and thereby reduce the orifice size.

Obviously, manual control of a high thrust nozzle in such a position is not practical. However, the means of attaining this advantage should not be overlooked.

Development of a suitable nozzle for building roofs required additional testing of nozzles providing a fan shaped pattern. These nozzles were referred to as fan nozzles, and the results of their tests are entered in Table A.6. The tabled data together with the appropriate pressure/rate curve of Fig. A.5 indicate that the performance characteristics of the 15 and 35 degree fan nozzles were almost identical. As in the case of the fire nozzle tests, the curve is a straight line having a positive slope of 2 denoting a constant unit water consumption.

A varied performance was exhibited by an 80 degree fan nozzle, although it seemed competitive with the above nozzles when under a pressure of 150 psi. Even so, the stream pattern was too wide, making it difficult to direct the run off along a unidirectional path. Considerable contaminant was inadvertently pushed to both sides despite all efforts to contain it. From this and the previous nozzle runs, it was concluded that a fan angle near 35 degrees would be satisfactory.

Because of their small size and restricted flow, the removal rates achieved with the fan nozzles were not generally as high as those for the fire nozzles. For this reason a larger nozzle designed with an eliptic orifice was fabricated and tested. Table A.6 shows the results of tests for two orifice sizes, a 3/8 x 9/16 inch orifice and a 3/8 x 1/2 inch orifice, respectively. From these results it is evident that the larger eliptic (3/8 x 9/16) was by far the most promising of the two. Since the runs were carried out on a composition roof where freedom of movement was very limited, the performance of the eliptical fan nozzles was proportionately limited. Rates were lower and unit consumption was higher than for the smaller nozzles tested previously on pavement. Even under these conditions, the performance curve for the large eliptic appeared to hold to the straight pattern established by all its predecessors (see Fig. A.5). Again, the slope had a value of 2.

A set of experiments was carried out on a tar and gravel roof. Four different nozzles were used as shown at the bottom of Table 6. Although the removal rate varied from 71 to 91 ft $^2$ /min and the consumption varied from 640 to 910 gal/1000 ft $^2$ , the economy ratio remained almost constant. Whether this is a peculiarity of tar and gravel roofs remains for further testing to decide.

TABLE A.6

Fan Nozzle Tests

Rate Unit Econ. (ft <sup>2</sup> /min) Cnsmptn Ratio gal ( $\rho$ )		222 145 1.53 250 128 1.97 310 123 2.52 250 176 1.42	167 108 1.54 200 110 1.82 250 100 2.50	181 111 1.63 222 108 2.06 274 102 2.68 gles	74 420 0.18	117 315 0.37 210 295 0.71 190 326 0.58	
nts		888 <b>3</b>	18 22 25 25		31	F883	58 152
(Rpm)	Pavements	110 150 200	130 200 260	150 20 200 24 280 28 Commosition Shingles	95	104 104 108	150
		11/35	1/1	1/4		3/8 <b>x</b> 9/16	3/8 <b>x</b> 1/2
Angle (degrees)	. •	8	35	<b>51</b>	25	8	8
		U80200*	P35100#	P15100#	U25200*	Bliptic	Eliptic

TABLE A.6 (Contd)

Fan Nozzle Tests

Wzzle Type	Fan Angle (degrees)	Orifice (in.)	Press (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Rate (ft <sup>2</sup> /min)	Unit Cnsmptn gal 1000 ft <sup>2</sup>	Econ. Ratio	
		ar I	Far and Gravel	[B]	7			
l in. Lance l in. Lance l-1/2 in. Forester l-1/2 in. Suicide	8	3/8 x 1/2 3/8 7/16 5/8	155 165 135 60	<b>3</b> 78 8	81 17 81 97	750 640 770 910	0.107 0.11 <b>0</b> 0.104 0.106	

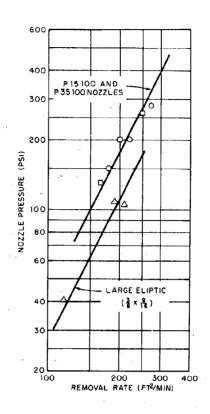


Fig. A.5 Performance Curves for Water Broom Nozzles

# Street Flusher Tests

While the previous tests were taking place the powered street flusher (used during the STONEMAN I operation) was being equipped with new piping, valves, nozzles and a larger pump rated at 500 gpm. Because of their excellent condition, permission was obtained from Pacific Reserve Fleet to use the concrete paved areas at the lower ends of piers 1 and 2. The first set of runs was made on a contaminant mass level of 100 g/ft $^2$ . As before, speeds were controlled so as to provide a visual removal of approximately 95 percent of the non-radioactive dirt simulant.

Upon the basis of the lower flow rates and strong impacts noted during the preliminary studies, flusher nozzles were gapped for an orifice setting of 3/64 of an inch. This immediately proved to be a critical setting at pressures in excess of 50 psi. The fan shaped jets broke up into distinct fingers above this pressure and combed through the contaminant leaving behind large streaks of mud. It was then decided to try the next larger spacing, 1/16 of an inch. Trial runs showed this setting to be satisfactory.

In order to push the contaminant aside and out of the way of the truck's wheels, only three of the four available nozzles could be used. The two front nozzles were adjusted so that their jets intersected the pavement in a continuous straight line. Trial runs showed that, whenever the continuity of this intersection line was broken, streaking resulted. The left side nozzle (just behind the driver) was aimed so as to pick up where the left front nozzle left off in the removal process. Because all three nozzles had to be matched to provide sufficient overlapping of the jet streams, it was not possible to make the attack angles all equal at 30 degrees. This angle was, therefore, used as only a rough guide in adjusting the nozzle array.

Table A.7 contains the results of the flusher tests, the more important runs being those involving the 100 g/ft<sup>2</sup> mass levels. Average values of the tabled data have been plotted in Figs. A.6 through A.9 The solid curves apply to flusher performance and the dashed lines apply to hosing systems involving several fire nozzles (5/8 inch tip). With the exception of the curve for consumption, the three remaining curves have been normalized at 30 psi.

Figures A.6, A.7 and A.8 clearly demonstrate the superior properties of a powered flusher system, by the rapid divergence of the dashed and solid curves with increasing pressure. For example, in the range from 30 to 55 psi a flusher will exhibit the following advantages over a comparable hose and fire nozzle system:

TABLE A.7
Street Flusher Tests

Nozzle Type Arrangement	Orifice Size (in.)	Mass Level (g/ft <sup>2</sup> )	Press. (psi)	Flow (gpm)	Rate (ft <sup>2</sup> /min)	Unit Cnamptn Sal 1000 ft2	Econ. Ratio (A)
			liminar				
Conventional 3 Nozzles	1/16 <b>X</b> 8-1/2	100	30 30 30	320 320 320	1730 2040 2100	185 157 152	9.4 13.0 13.8
	u.	•	35 35	348 348	1800 2000	193 174	9·3 11·5
		i	40 40	378 378 378	2140 2570 2650	177 147 143	12.1 17.5 18.5
			45 45 45 45	410 410 410 410	2500 2500 2720 3000 //	164 164 151 137	15.2 15.2 17.9 21.8
			50	450	2730	165	<b>1</b> 6. <b>6</b>
<b>3</b>		100	55* 55 55 55 55	480 480 480 480 480	3100 3220 3430 3600 3900	155 149 140 133 123	20.0 21.6 24.5 27.0 31.7
		30 30	30 ·	″ 320 443	9500 11200	34 40	280 280
ħ.		10 10	35 50	348 443	9500 11200	36 40	264 280
Improvised 4 - U40200's	11/32	100 100	65 65	102 102	1280 15 <b>00</b>	80 68	16.0 22.1
		Stoneman	II Dre	ss Rehe	arsals		
Conventional 3 Nozzles	1/16 x 8-1/2	100 100	55 55	480 480	4 <b>500</b> 5130	106 93	42.2 55. <b>2</b>

<sup>\*</sup>Maximum pressure obtainable for nozzle setting of 1/16 inch.

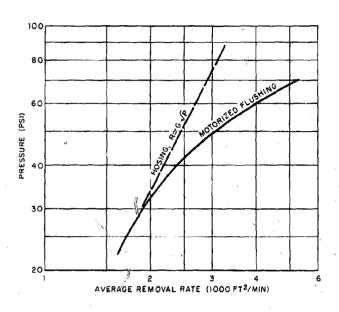


Fig. A.6 Comparative Increase in Removal Rate With Increased Nozzle Pressure

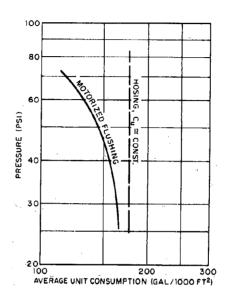


Fig. A.7 Comparison of Average Unit Consumption With Increased Nozzle Pressure

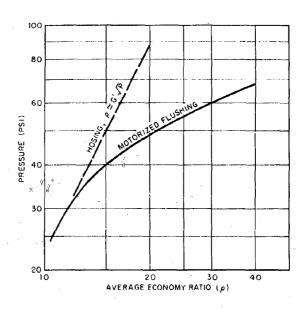


Fig. A.8 Comparative Increase in Economy Ratio With Increased Nozzle Pressure

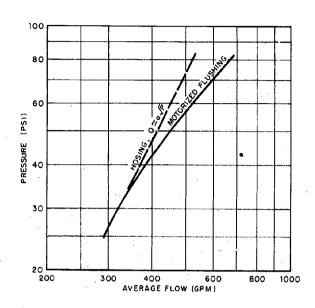


Fig. A.9 Comparative Increase in Average Flow With Increased Nozzle Pressure

(1) Rate gains of 1/3,

(2) Consumption savings of 1/3,

(3) Economy ratio gains of 2/3.

The shape of these curves indicates that the advantages would become even greater at higher pressures. Because more powerful pumping systems than the one installed are available, the attainment of these pressures is not likely to impose an immediate limit upon rate. The restriction in the form of a safe speed limit will undoubtedly occur first. Further testing will probably show that, because of the nature of the soil contaminant, a maximum rate exists beyond which removal can no longer be effectively accomplished. It was found during the early testing that 30 psi was the minimum pressure limit for complete removal (95%). The corresponding rate was 1900 ft²/min. Although this was the optimum rate for 30 psi, it may be thought of as the minimum flushing rate in consideration of higher and more desirable pressures.

The unit consumption curve in Fig. A.7 appears to have been at a near maximum value when pressure was 30 psi. Its apparent approach, with decreasing pressure, to the constant value of 177 gal/1000 ft<sup>2</sup> for firehosing (shown by the dashed line) is merely coincidental. As the pressure increases well beyond 55 psi, the unit consumption curve will no doubt approach some lower limiting value asymptotically since, by definition, it can never become zero. If this is true, the slope of the removal curve will become more nearly constant.

The curve for volume of water used per unit of time, as shown in Fig. A.9, demonstrates flushing, in this connection, to be at a slight disadvantage. The curve is actually a calibration curve for the combined flow of all three flusher nozzles. As such, it points up a weakness in the nozzle design - not the flusher system or its capability. Because of the long narrow orifice shape (8-1/2 X 1/16 inches) and the lack of structural reinforcement, the nozzle lips were able to separate under increased pressures. This enlarged the effective orifice area and permitted excessive flow. An improved and simplified nozzle design would correct this condition. The solid curve would then coincide with the dashed line shown in Fig. A.9.

Limited runs were made on mass levels of 30 and 10 g/ft<sup>2</sup>. As shown by the values in Table A.7 the performance was much higher, in every respect, than for previous runs on  $100 \text{ g/ft}^2$ . Optimum performance in the 10 gram case could not be determined, due to the fact that flusher speeds could not be increased further for fear of driving off the end of the pier.

Results of two runs made with an improvised nozzle system are included in the table. This system consisted of four manifolded U40200\* flat jet nozzles mounted on the front of the street flusher. Attack and azimuth angles were set at 30 and 60 degrees respectively in accordance with the findings of the jeep flusher tests made earlier.

In order to establish a basis for comparison between this improvised system and the conventional flusher system tested earlier, the data for the former must be adjusted to a 14 nozzle arrangement. Such an improvised system (I) provides about the same coverage (7 feet) as the conventional flusher (c) and a comparison gives the following results;

- (1)  $(Rate)_T \simeq (Rate)_c$
- (2) (Consumption) 2 1/2 (Consumption)
- (3)  $\rho_{\tau} \simeq 3/2 \rho_{c}$

Although the comparisons appear optimistic, they serve to demonstrate the feasibility of improvised systems as a substitute for conventional flushers.

### Nozzle Calibrations

Figure A.10 contains the nozzle calibration curves for the four individual types of nozzles eventually used at the STONEMAN II tests. The two curves at the extreme right hand side of the figure give the flow behavior of nozzle combinations comprising improvised and conventional flusher systems, respectively, as used at Operation STONEMAN II

#### PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

- 1. Within the anticipated limits (1 to 3 ft for fixed nozzles and 1 to 8 ft for hand held nozzles) the impact of water streams doesn't diminish significantly with increased range.
- 2. For fixed nozzles which have flat fan shaped streams, as proposed for street flushers, removal effectiveness and economy ratios are highest for attack angles between 30 and 45 degrees and an azimuth angle of about 60 degrees.
- 3. Flusher tests showed that to prevent streaking and thereby achieve the desired removal effectiveness, the two front nozzles must be matched so that the water jets impinge on the pavement in an uninterrupted straight line.

\*Spraying Systems Co. model number .

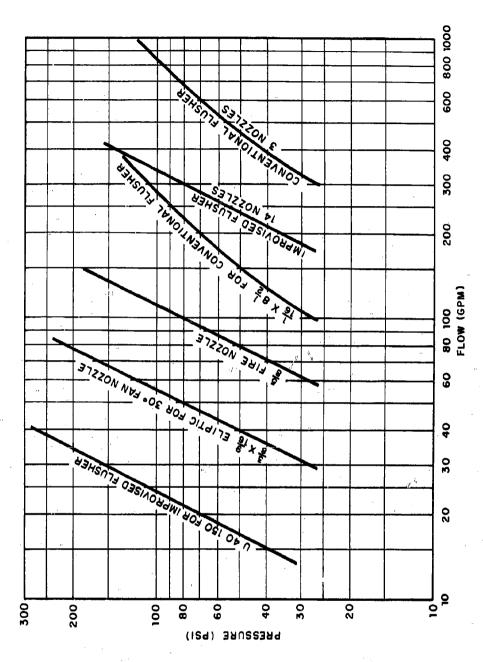


Fig. A.10 Nozzle Calibration Curves

- 4. In the case of hand held nozzles having cylindrical streams, long range application at small attack angles (about 10 degrees) permits optimum removal rates. The standard 1-1/2 in. fire nozzle with a 5/8 in. orifice proved to be the best of those tested when operated at a range of 15 to 20 ft.
- 5. Conical streams are very effective at close range, but the attendant pulsation in the stream's thrust creates excessive fatigue to the nozzle man.
- 6. The best design of a nozzle suitable for building roofs is a 1 inch nozzle with a  $3/8 \times 9/16$  eliptic orifice which provides a relatively flat fan shaped stream having an included angle of about 30 degrees.
- 7. The trial nozzle system for improvised street flushing appears to be equal or better than the conventional arrangement from the standpoint of rate, consumption and economy ratio.
- 8. Because of the greater rates possible, increased nozzle pressure causes no increase in unit consumption. In fact, unit consumption even decreases with higher pressures and rates (see Fig. A.7) when motorized flushing is employed.

The above findings are restricted to initial mass loadings of 100 g/ft<sup>2</sup> and a removal effectiveness of 95 %.

### APPENDIX B

#### B.1 OBSERVED DATA

The following tables present for each test the radiation measurements obtained at the monitoring locations on the test areas. The measurements have been background-corrected and decayed to the midtime of the initial readings. All measurements were taken with the Mobile Shielded Gamma Detector Unit described in Volume I of this series of reports. Table B.1, B.2 and B.3 present the raw data utilized to obtain the effort required for each surface-method combination.

A map of Camp Stoneman indicating the various test areas is shown.

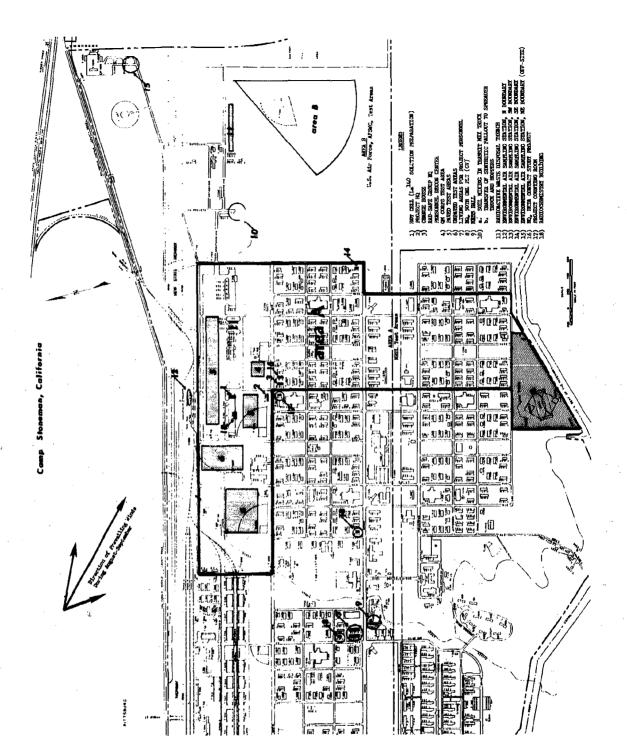


TABLE B.1 Raw Data for Decontamination Rate and Effort on Pavements

est.	Date	Area ft <sup>2</sup>	Time min	No. of Nozzles	Nozzle Pressure psi	No. of Passes(1)	Rate(2) ft2/min	Effort(2) man-min/ 10 <sup>4</sup> ft2	Speed(2)
				Conv	entional Mod	torized Flus	hing		
11	8/27	6000	1.48	3	45	5	4050	2.47	5.76
2	8/21		1.6	3	55	5	3750	2.66	5.3
13	8/25		3.25	รั	55	5	1845	5.42	2.63
4	8/30		0.8	ž	55	Ś	750Ó	1.33	10.65
5	9/15		1.10	3	<b>5</b> 5	ś	5450	1.83	7.74
5i	9/16		-	3	<u> 55</u>	ś	5350	1.87	7.6
6	8/25		1.8	รั	55 4 <b>5</b>	ś	3330	3.00	4.74
17	8/30		0.55	r:	55	55555555	10900	0.92	15.5
8	8/30		0.75	ž	55	ś	8000	1.25	11.34
81	9/19		0.73	จั	55 55 60	ś	8220	1.21	11.7
9	8/26		1.11	จึ	55	·ś	5420	1.85	7.67
í0	9/19	4500	0.67	จั	<b>6</b> 0	Ĺ	6720	1.49	9.50
111	9/16	2800	0.66	3	55	3	4250	2.36	7.23
12	9/1	4500	1.56	<b>3</b>	55	4-1/2	2890	3.47	4.59
113		12500	2.0	ž	śś	4-1/2 4(3) 4(3)	6250	1.60	11.4
14	9/20	12500	-	ี จั	55 60	4(3)	2550	3.92	4.64
40s(	9/20	5000			N·A·	6	1920	5.2	5.25
4ÛF	9/20	5000	ù.66	3	άυ	ů.	5700	1.76	10.3
	,	,							
				Im	provised Mo	torized Flus	hing		
15	9/15	6000	1.42	14	85	6	4220	2.36	7.20
16	8/29		1.57	14	85	6 6	3820	2 62	6.52
17	9/1		2.14	14	85	6	2800	3.56	4.78
118	9/5		0.77	14	85	6	7800	1.28	13.27
19	9/17		1.22	14	90	6	4920	2.03	8.38
20	9/10		•	14	90	•	3975	2.51	6.7
201	9/13			14	85	_	4690	2.13	7.98
21	9/15	4500	0.72	14	8ó	5	6250	1.60	11.03
122	9/17	4500	1.1	14	80	5 5 5	4090	2.44	7.25
123	9/13	4500		14	85	É	2500	3,84	4.57

No. of adjacent passes for one complete coverage of test area.

Computed.

Flushed 2 passes in each direction.

S = Sweeping
F = Flushing
NA = Not Applicable

TABLE B.2 Raw Data for Decontamination Rate and Effort: Firehosing Pavements

Test	Date	Area ft2	Time min.	No. of Nozzles	Nozzle Pressure psi	No. of Men	Rate(1)	Effort <sup>(1)</sup> man-min/10 <sup>4</sup> ft <sup>2</sup>	Speed <sup>(1)</sup> ft/min
\24 	8/30	6000	4.1	2	75-80	5	1460	34.1	36.5
125	9/2		4.43		75-70		1360	36.9	33.9
251	9/13		4.1		70		1460	34.1	36.5
2511	9/18		5,6		70		1070	10.0	26.8
26	9/4		5,6 10		78-80		. 600	ე <b>ვ. კ</b>	15.0
261	9/4 9/18		5.65		70		1060	47.1	26.5
27	8/30		2.2		75-0		2720	15.3	68.2
28	9/2		3.08		75-0		1950	25.7	48.7
29	9/2 9/6		8.7		H		υ90	72.4	. 17.2
30	9/5	4000	2.5		"		1600	31 - 3	40.0
31	9/9	4500	4 .C		Ť1		1126	nh , 5	35.0
32	9/18	4000	4.30		7		216	54.5	22.9

(1) Computed values.

TABLE B.3

Raw Data for Decontamination Rate and Effort on Roofs

Test	Date	Area (ft <sup>2</sup> )	Time (min)	No. of Nozzles	Nozzle Press (psi)	No. of Men	Rate (ft <sup>2</sup> /min)	Effort man min 10 <sup>3</sup> ft <sup>2</sup>
			30°	Fan Nozz	le on Tar a	nd Grav	<u>rel</u>	
AR 1 2 3 4 5 6	9/8 9/17 9/4 9/8 9/17 9/13	1440	12 9 12 9.2 6.7 8	2	150	6	120 160 120 158 214 180	50 37·5 50 38·4 27·9 33·4
			30° Fan	Nozzle o	n Compositi	on Shir	gles	
AR 7 8 9 10 11	9/9	990 1500 990 1500 1500	2.9 4.7 7 <b>3.35</b> 3.3 3.75	. <b>1</b>	120 <sup>"</sup>	3	340 320 140 640 455 400	8.8 9.4 21.2 4.7 6.6 7.5
		Lobb	ing of F	ire Stream	ns on Compo	sition	Shingles	
AR 13 14 15	9/19	1665 1620 1708	6.7 6.1 9	1	40	3	250 265 190	12.1 11.3 15.8

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5 <b>7</b> 99 +	522 <b>6</b> +	6385	6395 +	4241 +	42 <b>3</b> 6 +	394 <b>3</b> +	4691 	4725 ‡	4708	5385 +	
6304 +	5511 +	42 <b>72</b> +	4164 +	4589	5800 <del>+</del>	5616 +	4774 <del> </del>	4787 -	4178 +	4971 +	
6316	6542	5408 +	5689 +	5530	5435 <b>4</b>	47 <u>18</u>	9137	4521 +	4593 +	5915 +	

R,			·	<b>←</b>	Di	rection	or 0	teon form	ination		· .
186	<sup>2</sup> 13	202 +	<del>179</del>	160 +	148 +	150	153	148	¥'	<sup>98</sup>	
322 <sup>11</sup>	276 +	274 +	264 +	236	172 +	194 +	231 	197 +	148 +	162 +	
.383 +	334 +	248 +	269 +	217 +	244 +	225 +	203 +	222 +	177 +	183 +	

TEST NO. A-2 SURFACE TYPE A-C

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+	+	+	5133 +	4677 +	4621 +	3563 +	5365 +	4420 ~ <del> </del>	5539 +	4303 +
+	+	+	4000 +	3534 +	4338 +	3775 +	4639 +	2880 +	3058 +	2785 +

R <sub>k</sub>								<del></del> ;	· ·		
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192	222 +	231	255 +	297 <del> </del>	206 +	206 +	249 +	197 <del> </del>	232 +	164 +	
118	119 +	110 +	110 +	199 +	140 +	125 +	114 +	124 +	83 +	83 +	

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TEST NO. A-11 SURFACE TYPE P-G

DATE 16 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. A-31

PROCEDURE CMF AREA SIZE 32' x 140'

(4500 sq. ft.)

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TEST NO. A-12 SURFACE TYPE P-C

DATE 1 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. A-30

PROCEDURE CMF AREA SIZE 32' x 140'

(4500 sq. ft.)

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10937 10742 11656 12807 12133 13127 14368 12632 14738 15229 14050

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146 140 301 706 140 129 112 968 129 121 116

223 218 205 219 552 214 229 1460 208 166 141

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CE -1	ġ	AREA SIZE		1596	±2,4 +	
YFA(	AREA NO.	ξ <b>Α</b> S		1894	2915 +	
SU	AR	ARI		2756 +	++	
				+ +	380 <del>6</del>	
				20102 +	1,3265 +	
				± + .	4 ev+	
ı	1	1		88 +	**************************************	
	88			+ 555	+ 508	
2	16	i		1488	+ 5863	-
A-13	13 Sept. 1958	8	ı	<b>79</b> 22 +	+ 782	
	Ä			18%	+ 7880	
	٠	RE.		2821 +	2752 +	
P N	10	CEDU		+ 25.66	<del>8</del> 2+	
TEST NO.	DATE	PROCEDURE		189% +	1685	
				2520 +	1750	
			ائب	+ 636	2511 +	
			7			

	+	+
	+	+
	済+	42
	끍+	<b>#</b>
	桂	106 +
	沒+	119 +
	<del>21</del>	<u>ដ</u>
	젉	끍+
	27	<b>89</b> +
	졐+	% <del>+</del>
	∄ <sup>+</sup>	65+
1	67	<b>%</b> + "
	<del>1</del> +	34
I	<b>3</b> +	8+
Pece y,	£ <del>1</del> +3:	8+
<b>4</b>	<b>⊗</b> +	<b>%</b> +
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0.10	<b>\$</b> \$+	£5+
	<b>4</b>	<b>%</b> +
	₽+	8+
	<del>द्र+</del>	<b>3</b> +
Д Д	<b>%</b> +	4+
L		

А-С	A-32	32° x 500°	(16000 sq. ft. )	+ + + + + + + + +	12 12 0 18 9 18 5 18 5 1 4 + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +
SURFACE TYPE	AREA NO.	AREA SIZE		الاور اكدم عادة الماء	+ + + + + +
	258		;	+ + + +	+ + + + + +
4-14	20 Sept. 1958	E CHF		+ + + + + + + +	Sacrit
TEST NO.	DATE	PROCEDURE		1 + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	+ + + + + + + + +
			H	<u>5</u> +	*****

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	<del>8</del> +	<b>\$</b> }
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	82+	и <del>т</del> +
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$\uparrow$	<u>8</u> +	<b>⊬</b> +
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۲,	3+	g+
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ST MAN SHEET 1280 MINI TO (6/49)

TEST NO. A-15 SURFACE TYPE A-C

DATE 15 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. A-6

PROCEDURE IMF AREA SIZE 40' x 150'

(6000 eq. ft.)

TEST NO. A-16 SURFACE TYPE A-C

DATE 29 Aug. 1958 AREA NO. A-8

PROCEDURE IMF AREA SIZE 40' x 150'

(6000 sq. ft.)

 $R_{R}$ + + + 0 

TEST NO. A-17 SURFACE TYPE A-C

DATE 1 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. A-18

PROCEDURE 1MF AREA SIZE 40' x 150'

(6000 sq. ft.)

 14657
 14044
 12857
 14061
 13310
 12212
 12313
 11391
 11149
 11446
 10883

 12506
 10585
 13881
 13184
 9836
 6582
 7531
 8531
 12288
 12268
 11851

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 14937
 13900

 TEST NO.
 n-18
 SURFACE TYPE
 A-C

 DATE
 5 Sept. 1958
 AREA NO.
 A-7

 PROCEDURE
 IMF
 AREA SIZE
 40' x 150'

 (6000 sq. ft.)
 (6000 sq. ft.)

 99
 123
 117
 155
 93
 75
 85
 67
 139
 88
 222

 319
 291
 454
 254
 335
 1330
 246
 230
 150
 178
 159

 344
 296
 337
 440
 361
 272
 244
 200
 174
 179
 154

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TEST NO. A-19 SURFACE TYPE A-C

DATE 17 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. A-18

PROCEDURE IMF AREA SIZE 40' x 150'

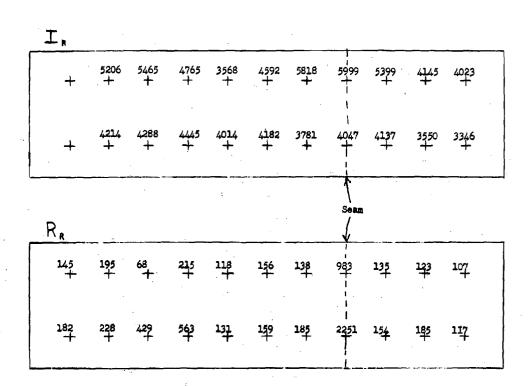
(6000 sq. ft.)

TEST NO. A-20 SURFACE TYPE A-C

DATE 10 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. A-11

PROCEDURE IMF AREA SIZE 40'x 150'

(6000 sq. ft.)

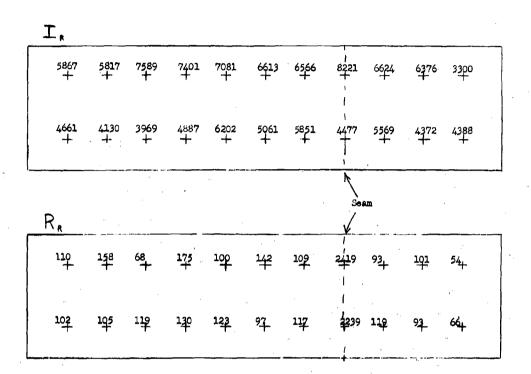


TEST NO. 4-22 SURFACE TYPE P-C

DATE 17 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. 4-30

PROCEDURE IMF AREA SIZE 32' x 140'

(4500 eq. ft.)

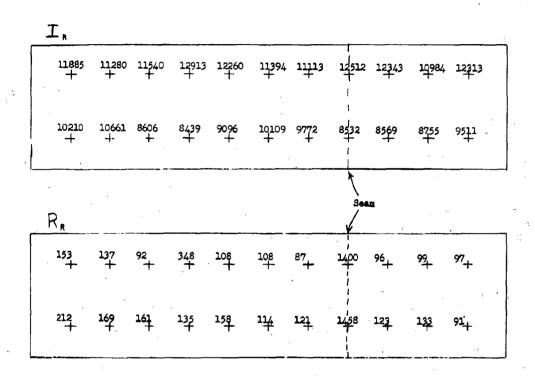


TEST NO. A-23 SURFACE TYPE P=0

DATE 13 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. A-30

PROCEDURE IMP AREA SIZE 32' x 140'

(4500 sq. ft.)



 5407
 4928
 4836
 4652
 4898
 4806
 4921
 4401
 3981
 3161
 3256

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 3202
 3804
 2921
 3521
 3107
 3398
 3916
 3095
 3441
 3545
 2352

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 3652
 3754
 3431
 4291
 4336
 3409
 4306
 3787
 2752
 3317
 3938

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 86
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 122
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 112
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 109
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 498
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 3903

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 4763
 5170
 5245
 3653
 4159
 3225
 3985
 4065
 2939
 5338

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 DATE
 4 Sept. 1958
 AREA NO.
 A-21

 PROCEDURE
 FH
 AREA SIZE
 40' x 150'

 (6000 sq. ft.)
 6000 sq. ft.)

 567
 400
 296
 445
 118
 984
 154
 516
 830
 725
 1480

 462
 380
 177
 373
 672
 406
 462
 2090
 1740
 1860
 432

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 984
 246
 655
 437
 746
 1060
 555
 1020
 1424
 667
 424

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 DATE
 2 Sept. 1958
 AREA NO.
 A-12

 PROCEDURE
 FH
 AREA SIZE
 40' x 150'

 (6000 eq. \$t.)

TEST NO.	A-30	SURFACE TYPE	P-0
DATE	5 Sept. 1958	AREA NO.	A-29
PROCEDURE	FH	AREA SIZE	40' x 100'
			(4000 sq. ft.)

IR				·	,		
2887 <del>+</del>	3717 +	3601 +	3862 +	4584 +	4723 +	4604 - <del>+</del>	4376 +
2948 +	3929 +	3 <b>90</b> 4	35 <b>3</b> 9	3449	2939	3054 +	2936 +
3569 +	3240 +-	3077 +	3315 +	3409	3386 +	3170 <del> </del>	2946 +

R				==-,=-,,_,_,			·	·—·
109	154	半	83 +	83	105 +	137 +	46 +	
129 +	<sup>72</sup>	104 +	74	74	195 +	75 +	42	,
82	<sup>70</sup> +	58	83	53 +	6 <del>9</del>	<sup>34</sup>	77	·

TEST NO. 4-31 SURFACE TYPE P-C

DATE 9 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. 4-31

PROCEDURE Fit AREA SIZE 321 x 1401

(4500 sq. ft.)

TEST NO. A-32 SURFACE TYPE P-C

DATE 18 Sept. 1958 AREA NO. A-29

PROCEDURE FH AREA SIZE 40' x 100'

(4000 sq. ft.)

IR							
7148	83 <b>7</b> 0 +	9506 +	11385 +	12014 +	11120	9837 +	10005
13384 +	14807 +	10915 +	9869 <del>-</del>	10602	11326	9883	9667
11460	12286	11076	10640	10639	10845	12078	1 <u>2</u> 882

R <sub>R</sub>								
202 +	218	139 +	126 + /	116	108	103 +	78 +	
148 +	101	114 +	101	145	138	113	131	
138	116	103	104	133	94	92 <u>1</u>	54	

TEST DATA SHEET

12ND NRDL-1001 (6/59)

TEST NO. A-40 SURFACE TYPE A-C

DATE 20 3ept. 1958 AREA NO. A-40

PROCEDURE SWPY-CMF AREA SIZE 32! x 200! (6400 sq. ft.)

TR

10273 10678 9803 10591 11266 11579 10932 9393 9736 10472 9650 8843

 97
 202
 87
 82
 68
 65
 69
 82
 81
 72
 68
 66
 63
 78

 125
 128
 100
 147
 97
 171
 187
 190
 184
 344
 386
 210
 134
 191

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DATE 8 SEPT
TEST NO. AR!

AREA NO. AR 3 (603)

SIZE 30'X 48'

NO. STATIONS 15

PROCEDURE WATER BROOM

RATE 60 FT2/MIN

SURFACE TYPE TAR 1 GRAVEL

COND. FAIR
WIND DIRECTION NW

SPEED /-2 KNOTS

BCKGRND CRCTN 0.5 CAS
MID TIME:

#### LEGEND;

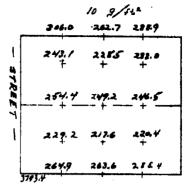
+ station readings (aps)

O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)

I<sub>r</sub> initial readings (cps)

R<sub>r</sub> residual readings (cps)

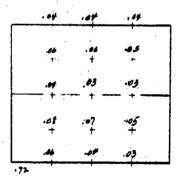
F<sub>r</sub> fraction remaining



Ir = 252.89 ± 261



 $\bar{R}_{r} = 1/77 \pm 3.2$ 



Fr = .05 ±,014

DATE 17 SEPT

TEST NO. AR 2

AREA NO. AR 5 (602)

SIZE 30'X 48'

NO. STATIONS 9

PROCEDURE WATER BROOM

RATE 80 FT / MIN

SURFACE TYPE TAR & GRAVEL

COND. FAIR

WIND DIRECTION SW YAR.

SPEED 3 12 KNO 75

BCKGRND CROTN 1.2 cps

MID TIME:

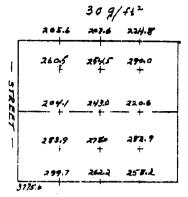
INITIAL 0828

FINAL 10 48

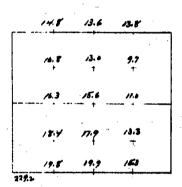
DIFF. 02:20

DECAY FACTOR 1.040

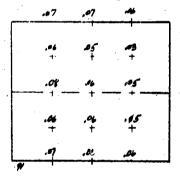
- + station readings (cps)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- Ir initial readings (cps)
- R<sub>r</sub> residual readings (cps)
- Fr fraction remaining



 $\bar{I}_r = \frac{26470 \pm 32.5}{1}$ 



Rr = 16.28 ±3,0



Fr = 100 ± .014

## ROOFS

DATE 4 SEPT

TEST NO. AR 3

AREA NO. AR / (604)

SIZE 30' x 48'

NO. STATIONS 15

PROCEDURE WATER BROUM

RATE 60 FT /MIN

SURFACE TYPE TAR & GRAVEL

COND. FAIR

WIND DIRECTION \_\_\_ NE

SPEED 6 KNOTS

BCKGRND CRCTN 0.8

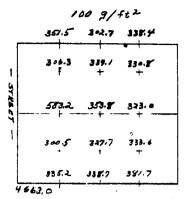
MID TIME:

INITIAL 0855

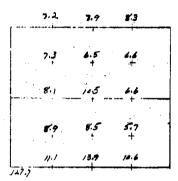
FINAL 1250

DIFF. 03:55

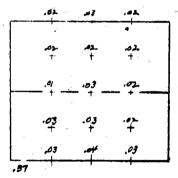
- + station readings (ops)
- O pan samples  $(g/ft^2)$
- In initial readings (cps)
- R, residual readings (cps)
- F. fraction remaining



In = 333.1±21.6



 $\overline{R}_r = 8.57 \pm 2.2$ 



Fr = \_\_\_\_ + .014

SIZE \_ 30' × 40'

PROCEDURE WATER BROOM

RATE 78 FT2/MIN

SURFACE TYPE TAR & GRAVEL

COND. FAIR

SPEED 10 KNOTS

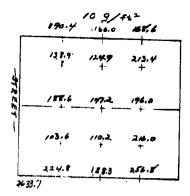
BOKGRIND CROTH 0.8

MID TIME:

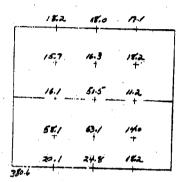
DIFF. \_\_\_ 0 2 :30

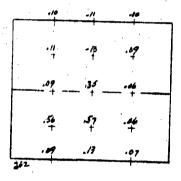
DECAY FACTOR 1.044

- + station readings (cps)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- Ir initial rendings (cps)
- $R_{r}$  residual readings (cps)
- Fr fraction remaining



Tr = 175.68 ± 44.2





$$\overline{F}_r = \underline{-17} \pm .17$$

## ROOFS

DATE 17 SEPT

TEST NO. AR 5

AREA NO. AR 2 (604)

SIZE 30'X 40'

NO. ST TIONS 15

PROCEDURE WATER BROOM

RATE 107 FT2 MIN

SURPAGE TYPE TAR & GRAVEL

COND. FAIR

WIND DIRECTION SW SPEED 32 KNOTS

BCKGRND CRCTN 0.6

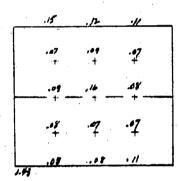
#### MID TIME:

- + station readings (cps)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- I, initial readings (cps)
- Rr residual readings (cps)
- Fr fraction remaining

	3	0 9/41	2	
	182.7	198.5	M=3	
١	248./ ‡	250-2 +	242. <b>5</b> ′ +	
37868	205.S	2/7.0 +	# #	
۲ ا	259.0	2592 †	246.6	
357	223.3	2246	1980	

Ir = 124.90\$ 26.5

۱	24.6	21.8	21.4
	17.2	22.5	1.9
	18.0	34.6	16.8
	2/.3	150	78.7
315	/7./	19.0	1/.6



DATE 13 SEPT
TEST NO. AR6
AREA NO. AR6 (602)

SIZE 30' × 40'

NO. STATIONS 15

PROCEDURE WATER 38007

RATE 90 F72/MIN
SURPACE TYPE 18R 9 GRAVEL

COND. FAIR.

WIND DIRECTION W - SW

SPEED 7 KNOTS

BCKGRND CRCTN ~ 0.8 cps

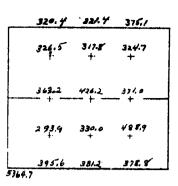
MIR TIME:

INITIAL 0943
FINAL 1448
DIFF. 95:03

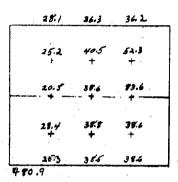
DECAY FACTOR 6. 2

#### LEGEND:

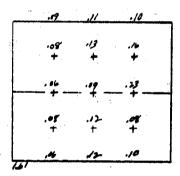
- + station readings (ops)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- Ir initial readings (ops)
- Rr residual readings (ops)
- Fr fraction remaining



Ir = 357.64 + 50.8



Rr = 34.3 ±8.7



Tr = \_\_\_\_\_ .044

DATE S SEPT
TEST NO. AR 7
AREA NO. AR 7 (1221)
SIZE 30'X 33'
MO. STATIONS 15
PROCEDURE WATER BROOM
RATE 340 M/MIN
SURFACE TYPE COMP SHINGL
COND. 5000

WIND DIRECTION W-NW
SPEED 10 KNOTS

BCKGRND CRCTN 0.7 CPS

MID TIME:

INITI/L /505

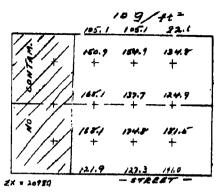
FINAL /535

DIFF. 30 M/N

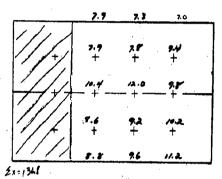
DECAY FACTOR / 009

#### LECEND:

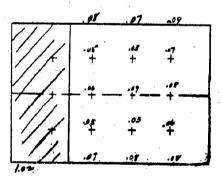
- + station readings (cps)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- Ir initial readings (cps)
- Rr residual readings (cps)
- Fr fraction remaining



Ir = 1386 ± 28.4



 $\overline{R}_{r} = -9./2 \pm 1.6$ 



T. = 17 ± . 04

#### ROOFS

TEST NO. AR8

AREA NO. ARI (1369)

SIZE 30'X 50'

NO. STATIONS 20

PROCEDURE WATER BROOM

RATE 320 FT MIN

SURFACE TYPE COMP. SHINGS.

COND. Good

WIND DIRECTION <u>SW</u>

SPEED <u>10 KNofs</u>

BCKGRND CRCTN <u>0.8 6.8</u>

MID TIME:

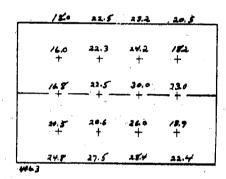
Initial 0730 Final 0820

DIFF. 50 MIN

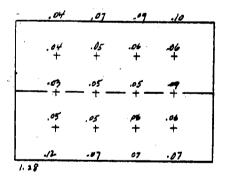
DECAY FACTOR \_\_ /. 0/4

- + station readings (cps)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- Ir initial readings (cps)
- R<sub>r</sub> residual readings (cps)
- Fr fraction remaining

4690	304.8	248.4	212.0
.3 <b>38</b> .5 +	+24.0	399.8	293.4 +
641.4	486.0-	<b>5</b> 9 <b>5</b> 4	261.8
387.0	391.4 +	417.8	30/.4 +.
20/.0 × = 7866.0	****	3 <b>0</b> .6	



$$\overline{R}_{r} = 22.3 \times \pm 3.8$$



ROOFS
-------

DATE 12 SEPT

TEST NO. AR 9

AREA NO. A 2 9 (13 28 W)

SIZE 30 X 3 3

NO. STATIONS 15

PROCEDURE WATER BROOM

RATE 141 F7 MIN

SURFACE TYPE COMP. SHINGL

COND. 6000 WIND DIRECTION SW - Var.

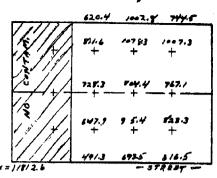
SPEED 3-9 KNOTS

BCKGRND CRCTN /.3 cps

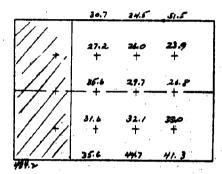
#### MID TIME:

INITIAL // /908 DIFF. 02:08 DECAY FACTOR //037

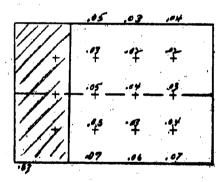
- + station readings (ops)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- Ir initial readings (ops)
- R<sub>r</sub> residual readings (ops)
- Fr fraction remaining



 $\bar{I}_r = 787.56 \pm 168.1$ 



 $\overline{R}_{r} = \underline{\jmath_{2,28} \pm 5.6}$ 



T, = \_\_\_\_\_\_ .017

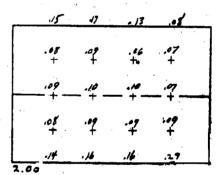
COND. GOOD

MID TIME:

DECAY FACTOR \_ 1.080

- + station readings (cps)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- $I_r$  initial readings (cps)
- $R_{\mathbf{r}}$  residual readings (ops)
- Fr fraction remaining

$$\overline{R}_r = \frac{8.64 \pm 2.3}{}$$



#### ROOFS

DATE 9 SEPT

TEST NO. AR II

AREA NO. AR 8 (1311)

SIZE 30' x 50'

NO. STATIONS 20

PROCEDURE WATER BROOM

RATE 455 F72/MIN

SURFACE TYPE COMP. SHINGL.

COND. GOOD

WIND DIRECTION SW

SPEED 6-7 KNO75

BCKGRND CRCTN 1.5

MID TIME:

INITIAL \_\_\_\_\_/3\_8

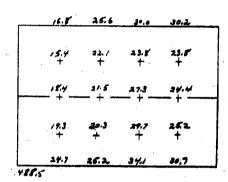
FINAL \_\_\_\_\_/3\_8

DIFF. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_/23

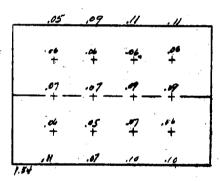
DECAY FACTOR \_\_\_\_/.03

- + station readings (ops)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- Ir initial readings (cps)
- Rr residual readings (ops)
- Fr fraction remaining

			~		
-	307,2	262.2	277.9	270.9	
	266.7 +	399.8° +		362.7 +	
-	<del>27</del> 1.9	30%0			_
	3 44. 7	416.0 +	40813 +	388.7 +	
£ 7.	2 <b>3</b> 3.5 64713	343.2	3459 — 578#		_
-,.	-,		4	-,	



$$\overline{R}_{r} = \underline{24.42 \pm 5.0}$$



DATE 13 SEPT. TEST NO. 12 /2 AREA NO. AR 10 (1328 E) SIZE 30'x 50' NO. STATIONS \_\_\_\_\_\_ZO PROCEDURE WATER BROOM RATE 400 FT MIN SURFACE TYPE COMP SHINGL

COND. 5000

WIND DIRECTION N-NW SPEED 2 KNOTS

BCKGRND CRCTN \_\_ 3.5

MID TIME:

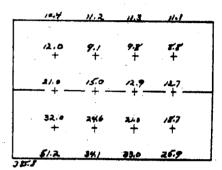
INITIAL 1028 

DECAY FACTOR 1.055

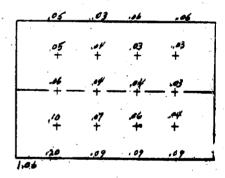
#### LECEND:

- station readings (ops)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- In initial readings (cps)
- R, residual readings (cps)
- Fr fraction remaining

$$\bar{I}_r = 3/3.39 \pm 78.9$$



$$\overline{R}_{r} = 19.29 \pm 11.2$$



DATE 15 SEPT

TEST NO. AR 13

AREA NO. AR 13 (1388)

SIZE 1665 FT2

MO. STATIONS ... 9

PROCEDURE LOBBING IL FH

RATE 250 FT /MA

SURFACE TYPE COMP SHINGL

COND. GOOD

WIND DIRECTION

SPTED .....

BCKGRND CRCTN O.6

MID TIME:

Burial 0835

FINAL 1423

DI F. 5.48

DECAY EACTOR Leg 19

#### LEGAND:

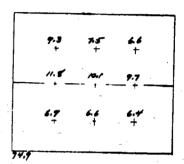
- + station readings (ops)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- Ir initial readings (cps)
- Rr residual readings (cps)
- Fr fraction remaining



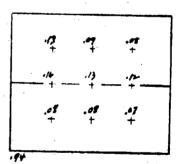
72./	97.2	79.0
‡	.+	+
75. / +-	**************************************	- <del> </del>
<b>8</b> 4.6	79.6	86.0
+	+	+

- OVERHEAD DOORS

Ir = 80.4 ± 4.9



Rr = \_ 432 ± 1,95



DATE 19 SEPT

TEST NO. AR 14

AREA NO. AR 13 (1388)

SIZE \_\_ 1620 FT 2

NO. STATIONS 9

PROCEDURE LOBBING 1 FN

RATE 265 FT /MIN

SURFACE TYPE COMP. SHINGL.

COND. GOOD

WIND DIRECTION . S

SPEED 1-2 KNOWS

BCHORND CBCTN 2.8

MID TIME:

INITIAL 0935

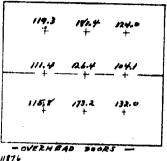
FINAL . 1.115

DIFF. 0/: 37

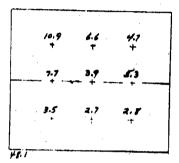
DECAY FACTOR /. 028

#### LEGEND;

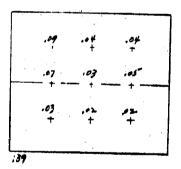
- + station readings (ops)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- I initial readings (ops)
- Rr residual readings (cps)
- Fr fraction remaining



Ir = \_13195 # 27.1



Rr = 5.34 2.7



Fr = .04 ±.024

DATE	25	AU	<i>G</i> .	

TEST NO. 4 R 15

AREA NO. AR 13 (1388)

512E \_\_ /708

NO. STATIONS \_\_\_ 9

PROCEDURE LOBBING 15 FH

RATE 190 F12/MIN

SURFACE TYPE COMP. SHINGL.

COND. 6000

WIND DI RECTION \_\_WW

SPIED 8-10 KNOTS

BCKGRND CRCTN \_\_ 0.3

NID TIME:

INITIAL 1457

FINAL 1545

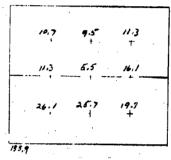
DIFF. 45 nin

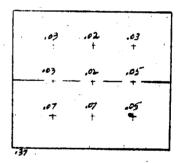
DEGAY FACTOR 1.016

- + station readings (cps)
- O pan samples (g/ft<sup>2</sup>)
- I, initial "readings" (cps) "
- R. residual readings (ops)
- Fr fraction remaining

406.5°	404.1	445 <b>.8</b> +
384.7	278.8	3/0.7
35/2	369.5°	#15.0
- OVERNE	45 04	2625

1314.3 Tr = 368.25 ± 5 4.6





#### APPENDIX C

#### CONVERSION OF RADIATION MEASUREMENTS TO MASS UNITS

C.1 A calibration factor for the mobile shielded detector was established for each surface; this calibration factor was then used to calculate a conversion factor for determining mass levels. The complete derivation of these factors is discussed in detail in Vol. I of this series of reports.

$$k = \frac{I_r}{M_D \times S} \tag{C.1}$$

where k = calibration factor, counts per disintegration per square foot  $(c/d/ft^2)$ , accounting for surface roughness and backscattering

Ir = average initial intensity of contaminated surface, in counts per minute (c/m) obtained with mobile shielded detector

MD = average weight of contaminant, in grams per square foot (8/ft2) determined by 1.22 ft2 pan samples

S = specific activity, in disintegrations per second per gram  $\frac{d}{s}$  measured in a 4-pi ionization chamber.\*

As can be seen from Table C.1 a considerable variation in the value of k was found. This variation is attributed primarily to instrument error or variability and to rearrangement of the contaminant by the wind between successive measurements. A k of constant value, denoted as  $k_{\rm O}$ , was determined for each surface by a simple average of all suitable values. To determine mass levels using  $k_{\rm O}$ 

$$k_0 \times S = C \tag{C.2}$$

$$\frac{I_r}{C} = M_0 \tag{C.3}$$

\*The calibration factor used for converting the readings from the 4-pi ion chamber from milliamperes to disintegrations per second is:

3.30 x 
$$10^{-15} \frac{\text{ma}}{\text{d/m}}$$

 $\frac{R_{\acute{\mathbf{r}}}}{C} = M$ (C.4)

where C = a conversion factor,  $\frac{c/s}{g/ft^2}$ Mo= calculated initial mass,  $g/ft^2$ Rr= average residual intensity of decontaminated surface, in c/m

M = calculated residual mass,  $g/ft^2$ 

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13 M 8/ft <sup>2</sup>		•	ġ,	÷ i	، د	÷	4	ó	-	-	i (	i	7	'n	0	c		v	ö	ò	8	7	ì			ï	4	d	Н	c	,		4 0	5 0	0.0	i			9	1.7	0.7	6		,,	14	, ,	) i	, ,	2 0	ر ن	1
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17.8 8/77.2		8	, i	÷.6	۵.9 پن	Š.	7-46	89 61	80.5	6	1 0	ķ	ę,	20.8	16.3	7.	,	٠, ١ ٠	16.7	102.6	141	,				89	λ ιί	74.e	4.52	ς,	18	18	y 6	9 6	) <b>Q</b>				4.00	43.4	Q.	7	8	4	8	9 6	֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֡֓֓֓֓֓֓	100	9 5	,	1
10 c/s		5	7,70	25	2,4	, ,	6,473	5,282	0.00	1 125	25,0	10,00	4,173	8,340	1,977	7 144	40,00	5,00	2,300	11.125	10.400					₹6°.	10,348	12,153	0.0	5	14.336		2	9	, 5 8 8 8 8				4.087	3,83	3,475	124	, המל המל מ	0.477	2,018	9	9	14,40)	1	2	,
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8 k <sub>o</sub> x 10 <sup>-4</sup>	ushing	83	200	, u	200	2	5.670	5.870	5.870	2,870	200	26	2	5-870	90	90	8	8	2.00	5.870	5.870			ping		5.870	5.870	5-870	5.870	5.870	5.870	, N	8	8	86	,			5.870	5.870	5.870	5.870	5.870	5.870	5.870	2 870	220	8	88	8	,
7 k c/a/rt <sup>2</sup>	Motorized Fl	. 67	7.07	25.5	ς ξ		4. (03	5.303	5.236	7.077	45	11	7.71	2.039	7.45	8.458	9	3	9	5.503	5-415			ed Motorized Flushing	,	6.850	5.361	5.078	7.013	96.4	4.745	671	16	1	89	•	<b>5</b> 4		6-537	5.863	8.4gr	6.422	5.395	99:	920-9	9	1	60.9	7 179	100	}
c/a x 10-4	onal Mot	4	,	3.3	14	1.	‡.	1.42	1.42	1.42	c	1 4	1	1.39	5,3	1.43	4	2	۲.45	1.41	1.46	•		ed Motor		1.41	1.43	8	1.10	7.40	1.47	1.47	4	3	1.1		Archosin		1.42	1.46	1.48	1.42	1.4	1.45	1.46	1.46	1.5	1.40	7	5	ì
5 S a/s/g x 105	Conventional	170	99.	200	, c		3-130	3.185	1.916	300	3.73	į	1	1.20	1.92	3.158	425	,	9	1.848	1.267	t		Improvia	:	333	3.141	ч 8	3.00g	3.576	1.831	92	200	2	8		_	•	3.42	ģ.	1.742	2.376	1.537	1.708	8	1.477	1.461	2.981	3.370	3	•
h Pan Counts c/n/ft2		494 68	60,	150.146	12.030	200	25,23	62,199	148,231	51.256	166.415	, ,	200	8	4,1,4	25:69	268 108		9	166,644	196,466					49,64	163,848	226,052	8 8	91,337	267,179	141.516	280	9.5	189,993				56,739	57,288	36,250	58,819	201,128	147,415	7,04,1	61,737	235,619	38.275	113.557	167,334	!
3 Mp E/ft <sup>2</sup>		0		) 4 ) 4	79			E.	89 6	18.3	25.7	,	74	0.0	13.0	27.9	107.8		1	4.60	153.0					17.6 17.6	4.	2.00	18.7	90	4.651	81.2	18.7	28.8	4.01				18.3	5.5	23.5	0.00	51.0	98.0	19.4	9.64	78.1	19.8	28.2	8	
2 Wind Speed Knots		4	יו כ	· <b>-</b>	- 4	٠.	^ 1	<u></u>	۰	-4	-#	•	1 (	N (	N	~	4		٠.	Q.	'n	i					٠.	-	N	コ	2	_	٠,	ŀ	·-4				٦.	 4 I		QI .	m	-	r-t'	9	_	m	œ	2	
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Mix(a) Rumber		6.0	14		9	,	!!	2.5	2.1	5.6	9.8			ų i	ÿ	S	7.7	) al	•	۰,	2.6	1				7.	Ņ,	 	3.5		4.3	9.	5.1		9.4			,	9	a M	0 4	ή. Α	d.	, te	9.0	3.5	3.6	3.5	4-2	2.4	
Date		8/27	ر م م	8/3/	% %	1000	77/2	or/A	9/25	8/30	8/30	01/6	70/0	8 2	7	9/16	7/6	6//0	18	8/6	8/50	9/50			24/0	2/12 2/12	(2/0	1/	4/2	9/17	9/10	9/13	9/15	71/6	9/13				ج م م	×,	70,0	or /c	*	9/10	٥ کر	2/5	9/6	5/2	6/6	9/18	
Area		A17	8	A23	AT	2		A.Ly	<b>4</b> 3	¥3	A16	416	0.0	3	3	A31	930	Q.	1	A.	¥.	<b>V</b>			ų	2 9	2 3	ą.	A.	A18	ą	AL5	<b>A</b> 30	A30	A30			6	3 :	į	3 5	ų S	7	¥ :	Q.	A12	<b>a</b>	<b>8</b> 3	A3	8	
Test		Ā	2	¥	4	¥	? :	40,	Q.	ΑŢ	AB	<b>A</b> 81	Q	,	3	Ŧ	4 <u>7</u>	A) 3	?:	ALA	Ş.	V,0			31.4	ĵ	110	į	Alo	<b>A19</b>	A20	A201	짇	<b>4</b> 32	<b>A</b> 23			4	ų.	Ç ğ	100	1	9 5	Į,	¥.	PS C	8	g S	¥3	<b>4</b> 3	

Compilation of Basic and Extracted Data: From Roofs

Ten t	Area	Date	Mix(a) Fumber	Time	2 Wind Speed knots	MD 8/ft2	Pan Counts c/m/rt <sup>2</sup>	S d/s/g x 105	c/d x 104	7 k c/d/ft <sup>2</sup>	ко ж 10-4	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	10 I <sub>r</sub> c/s	II Mo 8/ft²	12 r, s	13 M K/ft <sup>2</sup>
							30° Fen	Mozzle on		Tar and Gravel						5
AR -1,0 ₪ 4 ₪	AR-3	8/8/1/8/8/ 1/8/8/1/8/8/	r r	0820 0853 1350	1-1/2 3-1/2 6 10	28.0 25.6 21.1 21.1		3.210(b) 3.506 1.362 2.954	1.45 1.43 1.50	2.83 3.21 2.96	ន្ទន់ ន្ទន់ ន	9.9.68 8.8.8.8	252.9 251.7 349.7 175.6	28.0 25.6 91.6	15.28 8.51	2.1.3 2.25 5.25 5.25
	19	9/13	٠.	2460	3-1/2 7	9,7.2 2,4: 9.1	0 <sup>0</sup> Fen Nozz	3.499 i.42 l.948 l.45 Fan Nozzle on Composition	1.42 1.45 position	2.57 2.60 Shingles	2-81 2-81	9-83 5-48	224.9 357.6	65.5	34.63 34.63	2.14 6.87
AR-7 8 10 11 12	AR-7 11 9 12 8	9/8 9/12 9/15 9/13	9" S	1505 0730 1700 0928 1145 1028	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	20.6 h3.7 102.0 10.8 h0.0 71.8		2.913 3.750(b) 3.345(b) 3.260 3.497(b) 1.890	1.51	2.13 2.13 2.28 2.28 1.79(c)	् अध्यक्षिस्	6.73 7.72 7.53 8.08	138.6 378.3 787.5 81.4 323.6 313.4	20.6 102.0 10.8 10.8	6 8 8 4 8 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	1.36 1.13 1.13 1.13 1.13 1.13
AR-13 14 15	AR-13 13 13	9/15 9/19 8/25		0835 0938 15 <b>07</b>	0 1-1/2 9	1.0bbit	of Fire	3.314 1.821 1.800	1.44 1.43 1.44	on Composition Shingles 1.44 2.79 2.77 1.43 2.75 2.77 1.44 1.53(c) 2.77	2-77 2-77 2-77	9.18 5.04 98.4	80.4 332.0 368.2	8.75 26.19 73.93	8.32 4.32 15.10	0.91
(a)	at mose	100	1												.	)

(a) First numeral refers to week; second num
(b) Extrapolated value.
(c) These values not used for obtaining k<sub>o</sub>.

#### Explanation of Tables C.1 and C.2

- (1) Time. Time that initial reading was taken; all radiation data have been decayed to this time.
- (2) Wind Speed. Wind speed at time (1) obtained with a hand held anemometer.
- (3) MD. The average weight of the contaminant deposited per square foot by the dispersal device. The contaminant was collected in 1.22 ft<sup>2</sup> pans placed approximately every 500 ft<sup>2</sup> in the contamination pattern.
- (4) Pan Count. The average one minute count determined in a large scale counter for the pan sample (normalized to 1 ft<sup>2</sup>).
- (5) Specific activity determined by 4-pi ion chamber on a sample taken from pan (3) above.
- (6)  $\frac{c/d}{c}$ . The ratio of  $\frac{(4)/(60)}{(3) \times (5)}$ ; c/d should be a constant value for all cases.
- (7) <u>k</u>. Calculated value.  $k = \frac{(10)}{(3) \times (5)}$ ; K should be a constant value for all like surfaces.
- (8) k . Average value of k.
- (9)  $\underline{c}$ . A conversion factor dependent upon specific activity (5) and  $K_o(8)$ .
- (10) Ir. Average initial count of the test area taken with the mobile shielded detector.
- (11)  $M_0$ . Average initial mass level; the ratio of (10)/(9).
- (12)  $\frac{R}{r}$ . Average residual count on the test area taken with the mobile shielded detector.
- (13)  $\underline{M}$ . Average residual mass level; the ratio of (12)/(9).

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            Assistant Chief Chemical Officer for Planning and Doctrine
            The Quartermaster General
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60-62
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63
            CO, Chemical Corps Training Command (Library)
64
            CO, Chemical Corps Field Requirements Agency
65-66
            CO, Chemical Warfare Laboratories
67
            CG, Aberdeen Proving Ground
68
            Office of Chief Signal Officer (SIGRD-8B)
69
            CG, Continental Army Command, Fort Monroe (ATDEV-1)
70
            CG, Quartermaster Res. and Eng. Command
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            CO, Army Artillery and Missile Center, Fort Sill
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            CO. Dugway Proving Ground
74-76
            CG, Sixth Army, Presidio, San Francisco
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            CG, Engineer Res. and Dev. Lab.
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            Director, Air University Library, Maxwell AFB
107-108
            Commander, Technical Training Wing, 3415th TTG
```

CG, Cambridge Research Center (CRZT)

## OTHER DOD ACTIVITIES

110 111 112-113 114 115-124 125	Chief, Defense Atomic Support Agency Commander, FC/DASA, Sandia Base (FCTG Library) Commander, FC/DASA, Sandia Base (FCDV) Assistant Secretary of Defense (Res. and Eng.) Armed Services Technical Information Agency U.S. Military Representative, NATO
	OCTM
126-127	Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, Battle Creek
	ABC ACTIVITIES AND OTHERS
128 129 130 131	AEC, Military Applications Division AEC, Civil Effects Test Group Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory (Library) Sandia Corporation (Document Room)
	<u>usnrdl</u>
132-175	USNRDL, Technical Information Division

DATE ISSUED: 8 August 1960

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